

LIBRARY CO-OPERATION IN EUROPE

By

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8th June, 1935.

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TO MY
MOTHER AND FATHER

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INTRODUCTION

Objects. This book is an attempt to describe one phase of library activity in Europe known generally as co-operation. It is an account of arrangements made for lending books between libraries, and of union catalogues, bibliographical information bureaux, and other machinery which has been set up so that books may be found as quickly as possible. The end of the work is to establish such a system within and between each country that every library may supply, with the minimum of cost, delay and inconvenience to itself and others, any "serious" book for which it is asked.

To make books more accessible to readers is the main object of this co-operation, but is not the only result to be expected from it. Book supply is not the only object of library service, but it is one of the most important: and the mass of printed literature is now so great, that, less than ever before, is any library now able from its own stock to satisfy all its readers. There are probably at least 30 million different works in existence: the greatest library in the world, the British Museum, has perhaps hardly 1 in 10 of these, and most libraries hold an immensely smaller proportion. Every library is in the constant position of needing books not in its stock but which are available in other libraries, and of having books, not wanted by its own readers, which are required elsewhere; and librarians are now trying by co-operation to vitalize their own stocks and to bring more books to the rapidly growing number of enquirers for them.

The service is primarily concerned with older books, i.e., books published from the beginning of printing up to some two or three years before an enquiry is made. The general demand for these is perhaps little more than half the total. The proportion seems to vary in different countries, the proportionate demand for old books seems to be higher, for example, in Germany than in Great Britain, and as the chief effect of co-operation is to

better the supply of older books, there is less inclination to develop it in countries where the demand for these is low, than in the others. But a consideration of the whole work seems to prove that good results can only be obtained where it is thoroughly organized, and that results always well repay effort spent on good organization. It is also certain that in any country the very fact of such organization will lead to a greater use of books, especially of older books. And no country will question the social value of the encouragement of all grades of serious research, and of the contacts which this establishes between nations.

But co-operation will also result in a better service of all books, new and old; and in the present work this service is spoken of as a general one, the only limitation repeated is that the books are always of a serious nature and are those which may be lent without inconvenience to their owners.

Parts of the book—e.g. Chapters 2-4—are likely to be of interest only to librarians; but the work with which it deals is of great importance in the development of education generally; and therefore of great importance for international understanding and goodwill. Because of its extensive international activities it has a particularly strong influence in promoting these things: it is practical work materially contributing to the cause of peace. Indeed, one of the greatest, if the least obtrusive, of the influences making for peace, is the international contact between scholars and students of all kinds: a contact which is greatly facilitated and developed by co-operation between libraries.

Arrangement. The book is divided into two parts of which the first, Chapters 1-4, is a general discussion of the theory and practice of co-operation, and the second, Chapters 5-11, a history and description of co-operation in and between various European countries. But in Part I it is sometimes impossible to treat points as "general"; they have to be regarded as peculiar to the library systems of different countries. Furthermore, the practice of the work has hardly anywhere, as yet, passed experimental stages, and it is difficult to say which forms are best even for any particular country; and still more difficult to deduce general principles from them: so that it is impossible entirely to disassociate practice from theory in a discussion of either, and

Chapter 2 contains comments on practice which are themselves largely theoretical. In addition, the writer is bound to treat the question from the viewpoint of an English librarian: his experience of other European library systems is naturally limited. It has been gained chiefly from a travelling research fellowship given by the Selly Oak Colleges, Birmingham, in 1930. This was used to make a six weeks' tour in the early part of that year which included visits to 54 libraries, and other centres of library activity, in some of the chief cities in Belgium, France, Switzerland, Italy, Austria, Hungary, Czecho-Slovakia, Germany and Holland, to investigate conditions of library co-operation in those countries. The writer has since paid short visits in holiday times to Holland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden, for the same purpose, and has taken opportunities that offered of discussing the matter with foreign librarians visiting England, and has read what he could on the subject. He fully realizes that his knowledge of foreign library conditions is small, and that in spite of the intention to treat the matter generally in the first four chapters, these chapters have a definite bias to library conditions and needs in Great Britain; and contain many views, notably perhaps, in the section on union catalogues, which may be unduly coloured by his own working experience. For all that, it is believed that these chapters state some problems which are common to all library systems. In them an attempt is made to take count of all likely conditions, but the formation of any scheme will be governed by only some of these. The work in any special instance will therefore be by no means so complicated as the length and detail of these chapters might imply.

Bibliography. A list of the chief sources used, and some others on the subject, is given on pages 335-52. These have not been reprinted in the text, but reference is there made to each one by the use of the letter B followed by the serial number of the item in the bibliography.

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CHAPTER I

PRINCIPLES OF LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

This book deals with libraries, and since that term is applied to institutions of very different types its present use must be clear. It is hardly necessary to say that here it does not refer to a bookshop of any kind, or to a commercial "circulating" library, or to a library solely for private subscribers. It does refer to those collections of books which may be used by the public, made with the object of preserving knowledge recorded in printed books, pamphlets, manuscripts and other literary records, and arranged and catalogued so that each item is publicly described and made as accessible as possible, with the further object of assisting readers to acquire the knowledge so preserved as well as to add to it. Such institutions are the state libraries, the libraries of universities and other educational centres, the libraries of learned societies, and to a very large extent the municipal and other forms of "public" libraries, together with a great variety of special libraries. It includes any library of "serious" literature open to the public, and in particular, such of those libraries which are willing to lend books to libraries or to individuals in addition to their own readers. It does not include libraries whose sole function is to handle fiction, and in dealing with libraries whose work embraces non-fiction and fiction, it is concerned only with the former part of their work.

The term "reader" is to be understood as always referring to someone who requires a book for a serious reason; but to *anyone* who so requires a book, not necessarily to a scholar, or even a student, in the usual senses of those terms.

The word "book" covers any kind of literary record normally used for serious purposes, and includes, of course, all forms of such records, the ordinary printed book, periodical, pamphlet, leaflet and even manuscript, and photographic or other copy of any of these.

To one who is not a librarian the term "catalogue" is by no means so easy to define as might be thought. Here, it always means, unless otherwise stated, an author catalogue of books. This may be roughly described as a catalogue in which each main entry describes a single book or work—such as a book in more than one volume, or a set of a periodical—and in which the entries are arranged in the alphabetical sequence of the authors' names, or, where these do not occur, and only where they do not occur, as in anonymous books, official publications, or periodicals, of the chief word or words by which they are described in their titles. Such a catalogue may consist of entries in which each book is described as fully or as briefly as possible, or in which the descriptions are any one of the many degrees of completeness between these extremes. It may contain an elaborate system of cross references, or only a "working" system, or none at all. The most complete kind, where each main entry contains a full description of its book and there are complete cross references, is called a "bibliographical catalogue," the intermediary kind with abbreviated main entries and enough cross references to serve general purposes, a "semi-bibliographical catalogue" or simply a "catalogue," and the last kind, where each entry is highly abbreviated and there are no cross references, a "finding list."

Where no confusion can occur, or where it is immaterial if it does, the word "catalogue" is used as a generic term in speaking of any of these kinds of author catalogue. The main point is that when used without further qualification it always refers to an author catalogue of some kind and never to a subject or classified or dictionary catalogue.

A "union catalogue" lists in one alphabetical sequence the contents of a number of libraries; it is a unification of copies of the catalogues of several libraries.

The term "co-operation" is used in general to describe efforts made by librarians to organize the lending of books from one library to another; and the sense of the words "lend" and "borrow" is always confined, unless otherwise stated, to the lending of books. The main object of the work is to enable any librarian to obtain any book required. But the establish-

ment of such a system will probably lead to other results of far-reaching importance. It will bring to light and make accessible a great amount of bibliographical information, and will therefore make research much more expeditious, for it will assist readers to obtain books and to know what books to ask for. It will help librarians, and especially those in small libraries deficient in bibliographical tools, to get much information on bibliographical matters which will enable them to be more efficient. It may actually lead to a mutually advantageous re-distribution of stock among libraries, by exchange, and the pooling of little used books in central depôts. It may help to rationalize the acquisition of books and prevent unnecessary duplication in purchasing and the acceptance of donations. It may even, by bringing to light the existence of books, have some salutary effect on their actual production, both by stimulating the writing of books for which there is a need as well as preventing that of those for which there is none. It may do something to bring about a closer contact between the varied elements that make up the book world—readers and writers, publishers, booksellers and librarians. It will certainly stimulate interest in books and the use of libraries among the general public. Although it is not consciously directed to that end, this co-operation seems to be a first and necessary step in a much needed organization of the bibliographical world.

However, although these points may be borne in mind, they should be kept at the back of the mind. Our primary consideration is with schemes made to organize the lending of books between libraries, and it is enough now to say that if and where these can be satisfactorily achieved, they will be of great service to the acquirement and advancement of knowledge.

Some of the chief points in the work are given in an article, of which an extract follows, in the *Birmingham Post* of Saturday, January 3, 1931. This was written with reference to the proposal to establish a system of regional co-operation for the counties of Hereford, Shropshire, Stafford, Warwick and Worcester, now in being and known as the West Midlands Regional Library System, but it will apply to any system: "It is not a scheme promising large advantage to the general reader,

with no special interests, whose habit is to ask for books which happen to be momentarily under discussion . . . Still less is it designed for the advantage of the ticket holder . . . whose appeal is simply for 'something to read.' There may or may not be a case to be made out for an arrangement which would enable rate-aided and other libraries to exchange merely ephemeral light reading in bulk; whether there is a case or not, it is not the sort of arrangement the promoters of the regional bureau contemplate. They are concerned, primarily at any rate, with the requirements of the reader who experiences a definite need for access to this particular book or that, and can obtain no copy from the library he habitually uses, or even, perhaps, from any other within the limits of his own district. Readers of this type are probably scholarly; or, if not exactly scholarly, are probably pursuing some definite line of enquiry for some utilitarian purpose. In either case, they belong to a class which conscientious librarians will always desire specially to assist. And under the provisions of this scheme they will be powerfully assisted. There will be laid open to them (under certain conditions) all the resources of each and every library associated with the Bureau. Certain libraries, no doubt, will, almost of necessity, stand apart. Commercially administered, profit making concerns, for instance, can find no part . . . in a project of this character . . . But the number and variety of the libraries which may reasonably be expected to fall in with the projected arrangement is large. And unquestionably by co-operation they can facilitate to an important extent the pursuit of knowledge. On the whole, we should expect the Bureau to prove of greater value to readers in the five counties outside Birmingham than to readers in the city. For the city's general and specialized collections are both varied and extensive . . . That probability need occasion no particular anxiety. For one thing, assuming the scheme to be desirable in general principle, no sound adverse conclusion is to be drawn from statistics of volumes lent or borrowed in any given centre. A difficulty would arise and a grievance would be created, were any associated library authority found to be deliberately stinting its expenditure in undue reliance on the generosity of more honest and more enterprising neighbours,

but that possibility has been foreseen and provided against. And then it is to be remembered that libraries associated with the scheme will incur no obligation to part . . . with volumes likely to be required by their own borrowers. They will be entitled to make their own conditions on which books may be either lent or consulted on the premises; and they will, of course, avail themselves of that right. Co-operation need not imply disregard of self-interest, and readers must not imagine that even under this scheme they will be entitled to obtain whatever they desire, wherever it may be, with or without notice. On the other hand, since the scheme involves the preparation of a unified catalogue of books available for loan or consultation, it will make matters very much easier for the serious worker in unpopular branches of learning who, in present circumstances, may easily enough fail to discover the very existence—and may still more easily fail to ascertain the whereabouts—of rare, recondite or obscure publications more or less essential for his purpose. As Samuel Johnson once observed: ‘Knowledge is of two kinds. You know something, or you know where it is to be found.’ A Regional Bureau housing a regional catalogue will advance knowledge by facilitating discovery.”

It is a librarian's duty to amass as good a working collection of books as possible, and to keep it up-to-date. He has to put his house in order, to make an efficient and congenial laboratory in which research by books can be done. This means much, and is the main duty of all librarians—all, at least, who have a reference library; and a well equipped and well staffed reference library is an institution of the greatest importance to the community. It would be foolish to believe that borrowing and lending is the be-all and end-all of library service. Co-operation is not a substitute for efficient reference libraries, nothing can be a substitute for them: but, because the quantity of books is so vast, and their use essential to every branch of the community, it is certainly one of the chief needs of every librarian to be able to supply any book for which he is asked; that is a goal to which he aspires in his service to his readers; and there is no other way of reaching it, there is never likely to be any other way, but by borrowing from other libraries: for it would be wrong for most

libraries to acquire permanently books, or even reproductions of books, little likely to be wanted again by their readers, and especially if these books may be borrowed.

Now even if every library is willing to borrow from and lend to any other, it is obvious that such traffic must be carefully organized to make it of full use. For in order to borrow a book a librarian must either know where it is, or be in touch with some central agency which does. It is just as clear that there will be little efficiency unless the information possessed by this agency is comprehensive. It would, for instance, be highly unsatisfactory for a library to use the time and expense to borrow a book from abroad if a copy was obtainable in its own country, or even to borrow a book from the other end of the country if a copy was available elsewhere in its own town, or to borrow one from a library where it was required when another copy was lying unwanted elsewhere. It is obvious that to obtain this information for every book of research value in any country is a supremely difficult task, but it is one which libraries have accepted, and the most important movement in the modern library world is its attempt to organize itself into this ideal state where every librarian will be able to supply any book. That is the end towards which all schemes of co-operation described here are primarily addressed. It is, of course, an ideal which can never absolutely be reached; but developments of the present century have given librarians confidence that they can approach it. It is, just as obviously, a state which can only be approached by the closest and most active co-operation between libraries. The difficulties which confront any scheme for co-operation on a large scale are bound to be great even if every channel for effecting the co-operation is open. But librarians are almost invariably compelled to work only through those channels which are the most economical, and have to make these as efficient as they can.

It is well known that no single library can approach completeness—the special library in one or two subjects no more than the greatest general library in all subjects. The burden of collecting old and new literature and making it accessible has therefore to be shared out. It always has been shared out in a more or less

blind way ; it is the object of these schemes of co-operation to vitalize this sharing, chiefly by putting every librarian in the position of being able to find out where the nearest, inactive, copy of a wanted book is, and to borrow it. And so the problem which these schemes are intended to solve may be stated by the librarian : "How shall we reach the end when most libraries will be able to obtain, with the minimum of cost, delay and inconvenience to themselves and others, any book which they need ? "

It is a problem which is as yet far from solved. Indeed, most of the work done has been in the nature of experiment, and there is no doubt that many mistakes have been and will be made. The various national efforts have differed as much in method as in extent. They always must differ in some ways, since the right solution for any country will depend on some of its general national characteristics as well as on the nature of its existing library service. In one country there may be state, or some other central control over most libraries ; there may be a long established practice of inter-library lending, a spirit of co-operation merely waiting for organization ; there may be a chief national library which lends, a national centre ready to hand for a system of co-operation ; there may be regions having considerable administrative autonomy, or being conveniently divided from each other geographically or politically—natural areas for regional library co-operation ; there may be a strong and united Library Association ; there may be a large reading public and a strong state interest in the welfare of libraries. In another country these things may not be developed to the same degree ; there may be only some, or even none of them, or others yet again ; and it is obvious that their strength, presence or absence, will have an all important bearing on the right nature of any scheme of national co-operation. However, the schemes described in this book seem to show that there is now a tendency among librarians to agree on at least some general lines towards a solution of the problem ; and there would perhaps have been more agreement if the experience gained in different countries had been collected and published previously. For example, England experimented in making two Regional Union Catalogues before

the South-Eastern system evolved a procedure which was much the same as that which had been used in Prussia many years earlier. The Yorkshire regional system is experimenting with circularizing applications: a method which has been tried in many foreign countries.

There has never been any body of opinion among librarians that the problem could be approached internationally. No scheme of co-operation yet started by librarians has included the libraries of more than one nation, and most have been for far smaller areas. There is probably no librarian who would not agree that the greatest possible unit of world library co-operation is the nation, and that the ultimate international solution of the problem depends on each country first settling it, as far as it can do so, for itself. But librarians prefer not yet to formulate schemes for "world library co-operation"; their feeling is essentially that the movement must begin at the bottom, in each individual library, and that when, from this, sound schemes of national co-operation have been built up, international library co-operation will not be a difficult problem. This is by no means to say that they are averse to the practice of international co-operation now, so far as it is practicable, but only that the best way finally to bring about satisfactory co-operation between all libraries is not to start at the top with, for instance, attempts to compile world union catalogues, but at the bottom with the individual library. And for any large country it seems to be widely felt that, after the essential national centre has been formed, each library should first of all co-operate with its immediate neighbours and that regional systems of co-operation should be made. Each of these should have a centre linking up its libraries, on the efficiency of each of which, ultimately all co-operation must chiefly depend. Given the desire to co-operate every librarian's first and essential contribution to a scheme is to cultivate his own garden [see B. 41, pp. 141-2; and B. 48, p. 43]. That librarian is the best potential co-operator, who performs best, and keeps first in his mind, his duty to his own readers; and whose primary motive for co-operating is to help them. This is, of course, merely to state an elementary requirement for any co-operation, that every unit should be

efficient in itself—which is quite as obvious as such other essentials as that the co-operation must be to the general advantage, and that there must be some central co-ordinating agency. It must also be practicable; and on the best means of ensuring this in a national scheme there seem to be three schools of thought. In each a national centre is regarded as a prime necessity. After that, one takes the view that there should be regional co-operation as mentioned above; another that the libraries should be grouped not by geographical areas, each including libraries of all kinds, but by groups of libraries of the same kind, as, for instance, all the university libraries of the country in one group, all the municipal libraries in another, and all the technical libraries in another. These two schools may be termed “regional” and “classified” respectively. Each is prompted by a feeling that there must be a degree of decentralization in any country, that groups must be manageable in size. The third view is that no groups are necessary, and that a scheme can be completely centralized on one national centre. Further discussion on these views is given below, but it can be said now that the third, for complete centralization, is not widely held; and that, of the other two, general opinion seems to favour the regional system, or at least for a compromise based on it. Most systems are, of course, to some extent “classified” just as most union catalogues are to some extent “selective,” but the general tendency seems to be for systems to admit libraries of different types and to form regional groupings. So that as far as there can be agreement on the best system for national co-operation, it seems to be that it should begin with the establishment of a national centre followed by the formation of regional systems. When completed it should consist of a number of these systems together covering the whole country, each having a regional centre or bureau which are all linked together by the national centre. In such a scheme co-operation is first regional, between neighbouring libraries through their respective regional bureaux; next national, between libraries in different regional groups brought together through their bureaux and the national centre; and finally international, the points of contact between libraries in different countries being the national centres in each.

As far as international co-operation is concerned, few are as yet clear as to the necessity, and nature if there is necessity, of further organization. It is obvious that for a few important purposes an international centre of some kind is useful. Something of the sort exists in the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, a section of the League of Nations with headquarters in Paris, which has done something to stimulate co-operation in library work generally and has issued useful lists of addresses of national library centres with rules governing the loan of books and other bibliographical services undertaken by each [B. 29-31]. In this it was assisted by the International Federation of Library Associations, which may prove to be the most suitable body to link up the various national centres. It should be said here, since it is not sufficiently well known, even to librarians, that national library centres have existed in many countries for some years, and that considerable international co-operation has been and is now carried on between them. It should be better known that any reader applying through a library of recognized standing to the national central library in, for instance, either Germany, Austria, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Italy, Great Britain or the U.S.A., stands a reasonably good chance of being able to borrow a book from one of the libraries of any other of these countries. To be more exact, the chances at present are about 6 to 4 in his favour, for the national libraries of each are annually satisfying about 60 per cent of the total requests received from libraries in other countries, including countries not mentioned above.

If, however, applications of this kind should greatly increase, as they probably will, it will become difficult to maintain this high percentage of successes unless national co-operation has developed further: and, in any case, it is obvious that the work can never be fully effective until each national centre is in contact with, and has full information on, all the libraries of its country. What has been said above to the effect that national must precede international co-operation has, of course, that meaning, that the latter can only be successful in proportion to the success of the former, and that there can be no fully effective and balanced international co-operation until each country has an efficient system of its own.

CHAPTER II

THE PRACTICE OF LIBRARY CO-OPERATION

We may now consider in more detail what co-operation means in practice to libraries and centres, the machinery required, and how it should be set up and worked. It has been said that the primary object is to enable every library to obtain, as efficiently as possible, any book needed ; and to do this it will be necessary for some centre to know the whereabouts of every "serious" book in the libraries in the system. In whatever way this knowledge is to be obtained it will obviously not be possible or necessary for every library to have it. It need only be held at one centre to which all may apply.

All national systems are, of course, preceded by much informal co-operation and by many small systems between groups of libraries, some of which may be well organized. When the time comes for organization on a national scale this work will be of great value in that it will have created an attitude of mind favourable for co-operation, and also, perhaps, as a basis for the actual organization of the national system. It is wise to use local endeavour where possible, for in all co-operative work it is well to recognize the importance of custom and tradition, the human element, and to make use of it. But although attempts to alter existing organizations and procedure should only be made if their value is certain, it is obvious that standardization of methods in various libraries is a great aid to co-operation between them (see p. 51).

Most systems which are formed before the work is organized on a national scale naturally begin by a working agreement for lending between two libraries. In time, others may enter this agreement, and the task of tracing books may still be left to each library. This is quite sound : so long as one library can regularly apply to another with reasonable hope of success and

the lending is fairly evenly distributed, there is no need of a centre. A centre is only required when this becomes impossible. This may happen when only four or five libraries are co-operating, but may not do so until the number is much larger : and in some systems a centre may never be an absolute necessity. The question depends mainly on the nature of the libraries, and to a far less extent, on the distance between them. A system consisting chiefly of libraries of a like kind, especially if its members do not have easy telephone communication with each other, will have greater need of a centre than one comprised of a similar number of libraries specializing, for the most part, in different subjects, and all within a short distance of each other. However, all systems, whatever their origin, are likely to extend to embrace libraries of many kinds including numbers of a like kind, and will therefore, sooner or later, need centres. A centre is a logical development, for it is obviously wasteful that single libraries should obtain, perhaps after extensive enquiry, information which would be of great use to all the others in the system, but to have to keep it to themselves. Information found through a centre is made permanently available for all. It is always advisable that the centre should be in the largest general library in the system, and it is advantageous if this is centrally situated. When the centre is formed, it will be the one source to which every library will normally apply.

It is natural for co-operation in any country to begin in this way, between small groups of libraries ; and although many such systems may for a while exist side by side, it is inevitable that sooner or later they will in some way be welded into a national system. This welding process will go on of itself for a time, but when most libraries in a country are co-operating with one or more other libraries, then it will be necessary to organize the work on a national basis. The nature of the control of such national organization is discussed later ; its form can be one of the three main types mentioned on page 25. Of these, it is convenient first to discuss the third, the complete centralization of the system in a national centre. If this is done, each library in the country applies directly to the national centre, which will aim to possess a union catalogue of all libraries in the country

as well as other information necessary for the work, and will manage the system itself.

Such an arrangement has the attraction of simplicity, and so long as it is possible it may be sound. But it is only likely to be practicable in a small country. The general arguments against it are: (1) If a special national centre has to be created, it will be found that one which is at all adequate can only be built up either with great expense or with great delay. Such a centre should itself be a large lending library, and must have a large library of reference books and a large staff to compile and work its machinery, especially its union catalogues. It is difficult both to create and to maintain such a centre; (2) If an existing library is used which already has a local clientèle, the burden imposed is likely to be unfair to that library; (3) The system will mean that borrowers will sometimes obtain books with unnecessary delay and expense since local resources will not be tried in the first place. A borrower may obtain from or through the national centre a book which was available in his own town, and which he could have had on the day of his request and without expense.

In a large country a national system cannot be absolutely centralized, it can only be brought to anything like full effectiveness by the existence of a strong national centre coupled with a system of decentralization.

It is perhaps best to discuss together the other two forms of a national system—regional and classified. In the former no library applies directly to the national centre, but only to that of its region. This supplies the book from within the area if it can, and if not, sends the request to the national centre. This is the form to which all national systems seem to tend. No national system exists, so far as is known, consisting only of a "classified" system, but in most countries there is a mixture of this system with the regional.

Nothing, of course, can be said about the best size of a region for co-operation, except that it should neither have so few libraries as to be unable to support the minimum organization required, nor so many as to need a more powerful and expensive organization than is likely to be set up. It is easier to obtain money for institutions in different localities than it is to get the

same total sum for one institution to serve the whole area. It is, perhaps, good if a region can be a natural one, i.e., with some kind of unity, geographically and racially, and it is possibly good if it is an area having political unity and control over its local administration: but these latter points are not of major importance. More can be said on the kinds of libraries to be included; for it is not as yet generally agreed that it is best to bring in all libraries together within an area. There is strong argument for bringing every library into a system because it is impossible to say what any library does or does not contain, and union catalogues prove that valuable books are found in unlikely places. A main object of the work is to supply locally as many books as possible, and this, obviously, can only be done if all local resources are mobilised. In addition to this there is, theoretically and sometimes practically, an additional psychological strength if every library is included in and contributing something to the system. But there are at least three arguments against the inclusion of all libraries: (1) As the number of libraries in a scheme increases, so may the complications of its organization; (2) It is difficult for libraries varying greatly in size, wealth or efficiency to co-operate successfully; (3) Co-operation is easiest between libraries of the same type, engaged in similar work, serving the same kind of readers, and staffed by librarians with the same training and professional outlook. When a system embraces libraries of different types, difficulties may arise because the librarians have different objects and sometimes do not understand each other's needs. At present the library profession consists of men and women varying greatly in the nature and extent of their general education and professional training, and doing work varying greatly in kind. A worker in the reference department of a large public library, one issuing books, chiefly fiction, from a small branch lending library, one in a university or college library, another in a cathedral library, one in the library of a learned institution, a county librarian, another engaged in abstracting and dealing with trade literature, technical journals and press cuttings in an information bureau of a large firm, another in the British Museum or library of a government department, may all be called librarians; just as a general practitioner, a surgeon

specialist, an anæsthetist, a research worker in tropical medicine or biological chemistry, may all be called doctors, but the work within the one profession is just as varied as that within the other. This simple truth is sometimes overlooked, and in the natural desire to recognize the fact themselves, and call others to recognize it, that they form one great body engaged in preserving and organizing literature and making it accessible to the public, librarians are sometimes apt to assume that the immediate problems of all members of the profession are the same. The immediate problems of all librarians are not the same.

The most striking difference of work, outlook and needs, is that between libraries which cater for readers in the humanities and those which cater for readers in technical and commercial affairs. These groups show differences in the material they require, in the manner in which they state their queries, and in the time which they can allow for these to be answered : and therefore the same organization will not fully meet the needs of both. The reader in the humanities requires chiefly books in the limited sense of the term, and he makes extensive use of older books ; he is usually able to describe more or less fully what he wants, and to give some time for his query to be answered. The reader in technical and commercial matters usually has quite other needs. He requires books much less frequently than the other, and nearly all those he needs are very modern ; he rarely asks for one more than four or five years old. But he makes a far greater use of periodicals, and especially of current and recent numbers. In addition, he brings a great demand for material which many libraries catering for the former type of reader still do not handle. He requires trade catalogues, technical drawings and illustrations of all kinds, price-lists, specifications, reports which may exist only in typescript, press cuttings, and so on. He may even need specimens of goods. But what he chiefly asks for is not some one of these or other things in answer to a description which he can give, but *information* on a subject ; as, for instance, details of a process in the manufacture of an article : and he may not only be quite unable to give a reference to a source in which such information is published, but not know whether anything has been published on it. Furthermore, the

matter he requires, whether he can describe it or not, is, if it exists at all, usually of very recent production ; it is often only the latest information which can be of any use to him ; and, finally, he is commonly in the utmost hurry for his information, an immediate reply is essential.

It will easily be seen that such differences as these make it hard for one organization to meet all the demands in a system including libraries of such different types. For example, the libraries dealing mainly with the humanities will need above all things a union catalogue of books, and perhaps little more than that. But this, for the other libraries, may be of little use, and they may press for other things. They may ask for an information bureau with special reference to technical and commercial matters ; and, if they feel the need for a union catalogue at all, it will probably be for one of periodicals and especially of those on their own subjects.

These points provide the chief argument against the inclusion of all libraries in an area, and for confining a scheme to libraries of a like type. But in fact, strong as it may seem in theory, it is weak in practice, chiefly because it is impossible to go far enough in any satisfactory grouping of libraries by kind. The British Public Libraries, for example, and especially the larger ones, are of such a many sided type, catering for all sections of the community and collecting all kinds of material, that their inclusion is of great importance to a system for either of the above mentioned or indeed any other type of library. The same, to a large extent, applies to the university libraries, particularly on the Continent, where these serve the general public more than British universities do. And as both these groups of libraries can be of great assistance to the special libraries, so is the reverse true ; and it is, further, impossible to group the special libraries satisfactorily among themselves since they are so varied in nature.

It is most important to remember that as the main purpose of most libraries is still to supply books, so that is definitely the main present object of co-operation. It is essential that all libraries, whether it is their individual chief need or not, should fully appreciate this fact that the primary object of co-operation is book supply. If they do, and if they also recognize that other

libraries may be very different from their own, they can usefully enter a system : otherwise, they should not. The difficulties of co-operation are, of course, largely solved if each participating library can properly appreciate the position of every other. This is not always easy, but if it is achieved it does much to make it possible to devise an organization to give general satisfaction.

The simple conclusion naturally is that no library should offer, or be asked, to take part in work in which it is not interested, and, in particular, since this aims chiefly to facilitate the supply of serious books, only those libraries should take part in it which have that as one of their important objects.

The above survey has tried to show that in the first place it is advisable in most countries to combine centralization with decentralization in co-operation, to establish a national centre but beyond that to divide the work into groups : and in the second place, that these groups should be regional, consisting of all libraries in geographical areas rather than a classification of libraries throughout the country into groups of a like kind. The arguments have been chiefly negative, to show that it is impracticable to form either one completely centralized system for a whole country or a national centre and "classified" groups. But the case for regional co-operation is by no means chiefly based on the impracticability of alternatives. Its positive advantages, in addition to those already given, are obvious and manifold. In such an organization most of the librarians in each region are known personally to each other, which makes, on the whole, for the success of the work. Because of this personal knowledge it is probable that fewer lasting difficulties are likely to occur ; for these are more often quickly and satisfactorily settled where they may easily be discussed in person. More important, perhaps, than this, most librarians will know something about many other libraries in the system, their nature and contents, the whereabouts of special collections, experts on special subjects, and so on ; and this information can fairly easily be collected at a centre. But the dominant advantage is that of quick and easy communication between all concerned. There is the telephone for messages, personal visits may be made by librarians and readers, transport of books is quick, and although,

unless the area is very small, it will probably not be found worth while normally to send books and messages otherwise than by post, yet there will be many occasions when these may be sent more advantageously by other means, books collected in person by the reader, or sent by foot messenger, cycle or motor van; and messages by the same means as well as by telephone: communications can often be so made more quickly than, and at least as cheaply as, by post. In addition, cataloguers can visit libraries to compile union catalogues, frequent meetings of the committee are possible, and there is, in short, a possibility of easy contact between all concerned which must facilitate co-operation.

Now a centre may work in two quite distinct ways. In the first and less ambitious, it may set out to be simply a clearing house for enquiries. It may itself collect no permanent stock of information, and may not be required itself to answer any question not concerned merely with the handling of enquiries. On the other hand it may try to make and keep up-to-date elaborate and permanent records of information and to be itself an information bureau, firstly on the whereabouts of books and special collections, and secondly on a limited field of bibliography. Centres sometimes begin as the former and develop through several stages and in various ways to the latter. There can, of course, be no finality in such development; the "information bureau" centre can never collect, in efficient form, all the information it would actually wish to have available on the spot, and even if it could, would never attempt to collect far greater amounts for which it is well aware that it may from time to time be asked; it would be wasteful to collect information on subjects already dealt with in other places to which it has access; its business is only to know where these places are, and, as exactly as possible, the nature and extent of their several resources. It has to be a centre making economic use of decentralization—both to know some things itself and to know where information on others is to be found; and as it can never approach omniscience in either, it will always have to send out some enquiries in a more or less uninstructed way.

In its simplest form the centre has only to locate books, it

merely receives enquiries and transmits them to the libraries in the system. It may do this in various ways and may vary its procedure with different enquiries. One procedure is to amalgamate enquiries into lists which are sent simultaneously to the constituent libraries at regular intervals. When the centre receives replies to these lists it sends the information obtained to the enquirers; being able, perhaps, from a list of 20 items to give sources from which 10 may be borrowed and at which two more may be consulted. It may itself actually arrange the loan of books traced: it may not even receive replies to its lists, but ask the libraries receiving them to communicate directly with the applicants; and it may send enquiries for books not found in its own area to a centre or centres in others, or to the national centre. It is not easy to say whether a centre should notify an enquirer of a source from which he may borrow a book, or have the book sent direct to him. The second is speedier, but although speed is important in this work, it is not always all important. It is sometimes more to the purpose of an enquiring library to know where it may get a book than to receive it directly in answer to an application.

As time goes on the centre will probably accumulate information enabling it to make enquiries in a more instructed way. It will come to know of the whereabouts of special collections, and will probably set out to acquire and record such information for its own use. It will certainly, almost from its outset, begin to collect a library of bibliographical reference books, for it will gain poor results unless it transmits accurately stated applications, and a large proportion of applications received, especially in its early days, will not be stated accurately. It may keep some record of each application, which will include a note of those libraries in which books were traced. This will be a partial union catalogue of the libraries in the system, and will become a very respectable and useful tool. Developing in this way a centre will, almost entirely by its own endeavour, become a strong institution, the sole possessor of information of great value to the libraries in the system. But so easily is this to be foreseen and so desirable a development is it to the participating libraries, that these will not usually be content that it should be

left to come partially, in due course, and of itself. They will rather, from the beginning, want to promote the establishment of a strong centre which will be an information bureau as well as a clearing house for enquiries. The most effective way in which this can be done is by compiling a union catalogue of all the libraries in the system and housing it at the centre. This is the tool *par excellence* of the centre in library co-operation, and from the start of all systems is always in the minds of most librarians as something greatly to be desired. For, it is very clear, the best possible tool for tracing a book in a number of libraries, is a joint catalogue of those libraries. Such a catalogue would provide an immediate answer to every request for a particular book. It would tell at once, either that it was in one or more of the libraries in the system and would give their names ; or that it was in none. It is the limit of rationalization yet deemed at all practicable in systems of co-operation. So, in 1927, in proposing a small system of co-operation between four libraries, Mr. J. D. Cowley said, as something needing no substantiation : " It would also be necessary to institute a union author catalogue at each of the libraries " [B. 203, p. 19], and in the discussion which followed no one questioned this.

But although, in any system of more than two libraries such a central pool of information is desirable, the degree of its actual necessity, especially in the early stages, varies considerably. And even when the necessity is acute, librarians may hesitate to embark on the compilation of a union catalogue, because of the difficulty of the task. The difficulties vary in nature and degree in different systems, but they are always likely to be enough to warrant hesitation. To compile such a catalogue entails a great deal of time and labour on the part of many workers, besides a considerable expense. And although an incomplete catalogue would always have some value, no group of librarians would begin to compile one unless there was reasonable prospect of finishing it, as far as such work can be finished, and of keeping it up to date. Thus, although most systems come into being with a pre-conceived idea that they will ultimately have a union catalogue, few begin by attempting one, unless the constituent libraries are well organized in themselves,

or are already under some central control, or all possess printed catalogues, or there is a special fund available for the purpose. And unless at least one of these conditions is present it would be wrong to begin by attempting to compile a union catalogue. For all this, such a catalogue is to be regarded as essential in any system which is, or is likely to become, large. Union catalogues, however, are separately discussed in Chapter 4; the present subject is the work of library centres or bureaux.

For convenience, the discussion in this section is based mainly on the idea of regional systems, and while "centre" is used as a general term, "bureau" is also used for the regional, to distinguish it from the national, centre: but there need actually be little difference in the work of such centres and of those based on "classified" systems. A good example of that sort of co-operation is in Holland. Here the country is so small that it would probably not be worth while to set up regional systems, and the two main schemes are between academic libraries with centre at the Hague and between technical libraries with centre at Delft, each embracing libraries in all parts of Holland. Each centre compiles a union catalogue and receives enquiries just as a regional bureau would do, and each can send enquiries to the other just as would two regional bureaux in any country, if there were only two, and an intermediary centre consequently unnecessary. Of course, in Holland enquiries are also often first made "regionally," i.e., a small library first applies to its nearest large library, but these libraries do not act fully as regional centres, they send requests for books they cannot supply on to the main centre and do not normally try first to trace them locally in other libraries. This "semi-regional" procedure is used in many countries, notably in Denmark, Austria and Germany; and is being tried in the Yorkshire Regional System in England.

Co-operation based on regional systems is organized as follows: a country is divided into areas in each of which all libraries form themselves into a system of co-operation, i.e., they agree to lend books and supply each other with bibliographical information as far as they can do so without injury to their home service. They organize the work by setting up a central enquiry office or bureau and making a union catalogue of all their non-

fiction books, which is housed at the bureau. They also agree to co-operate with the other regional bureaux through one national centre. Every library first sends each application to its bureau which finds out if the book is available within the region. If available it is lent to the enquiring library; if not, the bureau sends the application to the national centre, which lends the book, if possible, or tries to find a loanable copy elsewhere. It does this by reference to its union catalogue, by research in printed catalogues, or by sending the enquiry to the other bureaux. If this search is successful, the book is lent; if it is not, the national centre informs the enquiring library that no copy of the book can be traced in the country. Should the book be foreign, the national centre will, upon request from the enquiring library, apply for it to the national centre of the country of its origin; and this will, if necessary, start enquiries for it on the same lines as those which have been described. This is the procedure in regional co-operation of the kind mentioned on page 25.

The following account of the work of centres is in three parts of which the first is general, the second relates chiefly to regional bureaux, and the third to national centres.

Work of Centres. General. This can be divided into two parts—first, internal organization, which will require continual development; second, activities in relation to other centres and libraries, to which, of course, there are two sides.

Internal organization includes the building up of its chief tool, the union catalogue, of its reference library and files of data on bibliographical matters, and its routine system for dealing with enquiries. The purpose of the reference library and collections of other records is to enable it to identify and correct applications received and to give bibliographical information. Its library should therefore include a copy of the best printed general catalogue produced in its country, a complete set of the national bibliography, in whatever form and however full that may be, and a collection of the best bibliographies of general literature and of special subjects. It should also have sources of information on foreign books, and copies of every printed catalogue issued by the libraries of its area. In addition it will

need what printed subject indexes to books and periodicals it can obtain, and a good selection of encyclopædias and dictionaries, as well as some general reference books—atlasses, gazetteers, year books of various kinds, and the like. A list for a basic stock needed for a large centre could be obtained from such books as B. 5 and 9.

In its information files the centre will collect any sort of matter likely to be of use, including bibliographies of all kinds and from all sources, lists issued by libraries, societies, etc., booksellers catalogues when these are entirely or mainly on special subjects, lists compiled by itself or any institution with which it is in touch, in answer to enquiries received; and also references to bibliographies in books, the whereabouts of special collections and the addresses of experts on special subjects.

In relation to the other centres or bureaux, or libraries which it serves, its chief duty is to obtain books which they wish to borrow and to supply them with bibliographical information. The supply of this information cannot be separated from the supply of books. It may seem that the two activities should be quite distinct; but in practice they are not. In any centre, to find where a book is, is to find and give information; just as to trace the existence of a book (of which the loan is not asked) or to make a short list of books, or to answer any other bibliographical question, is to find and give information. For the work entailed in the one is the same kind as that entailed in the other; and, in any centre, the same staff must do both things because a simple request for a loan frequently necessitates as much research and the supply of as much information as does a question solely for information. One inaccurately worded application may very easily and certainly be rectified; another may demand a great deal of research and correspondence. A centre cannot set up machinery to trace books, without learning about, assembling, or getting in touch with, sources of bibliographical information and making use of them.

With regard to the supply of bibliographical information, a centre's main problem is to know what sort of application to attempt to answer and what sort to refuse. It is, of course, quite clear that the only information it can supply must be

"bibliographical." Perhaps this should later be extended to include "library science," but at present few centres can undertake any work not strictly bibliographical. Now this is a drastic limitation, but yet not drastic enough, for "bibliography" is not only a very wide term, but can also include great tasks: which brings us to a further necessary limitation—no centre can at present undertake any single task which will take up a great deal of time, and none is ever likely to be able to do so. It can obviously not attempt direct bibliographical work, such as the scholarly edition of texts, or the careful collation of one text with others: it cannot compile histories of manuscripts, do work on the transmission of documents, the relation of editions, and so on, except in the briefest auxiliary way. These are the full-time tasks of scholars. The centre is concerned with "applied" bibliography, but what it can do is not easy to define; it has largely to judge each application as it comes: but its main function may be roughly given as—to inform whether anything has been written on a given subject, and if so, to supply brief references to this literature. This includes the compilation of short bibliographies; but this is a task which must be undertaken with great reserve, for all bibliographies, and especially short ones, can only be satisfactorily compiled by experts on the subject in question.

Yet, these limitations accepted, there are still a great many questions which a centre can usefully answer. The first and commonest type is the identification and correction of inaccurately worded applications for books. Some of these may be made through carelessness, but many are not. A reader may excusably forget the exact terms of a reference, and hand it, imperfect, to his librarian; or he may take it from a highly abbreviated footnote or other reference, and these, commonly by specialists in periodicals, or in standard encyclopædias and dictionaries, are often inadequate. A librarian of a small library without the time or means to identify such references may legitimately send them, as they are, to a centre; although he should, of course, always give as much information as possible about each imperfect enquiry, supplying, if he can, the source of the reference and the subject of the book.

A centre should also be able to supply short lists of books on given subjects if the request is exactly defined, the short bibliographies to be compiled, as already mentioned, with reserve. Requests for lists of books on a wide subject should rarely reach a centre, but should be dealt with by the reader's local librarian; they may, however, legitimately come from very small libraries and from others specializing on subjects foreign to that of the request. In fact, most requests for short lists of books are concerned with highly specialized subjects, on which literature could not be traced by the enquiring libraries. Typical examples are requests for sources of information on the lives of obscure individuals, the history of small places or minor events, or of countries over a limited period or from some special aspect, special processes and apparatus in industry, science and matters of all kinds, including domestic economy; animals, birds, plants and other elements of the natural world, minor religions, doctrines, ideas, and so on.

In general, a centre will only make a list of books when it cannot trace a modern published bibliography on the subject. If it can do the latter it will simply refer the enquirer to it. In any case it will rarely attempt to make a list of books on a big subject; it may give a reference to a standard account or history, but will do no more. It could not, for instance, entertain a request for a list of books on the Great War—here, it would, of course, notify the enquirer of published bibliographies—but if it were asked to say if books existed on some comparatively small episode in that, as on "Quaker relief work in Bulgaria during the War," it would try to answer the question.

In addition, a centre will be ready to find out if a certain book gives information on a particular matter, and if other books exist: common enquiries, for instance, are whether a translation of a given book has been made into a particular language, or whether there are other editions of a book than one cited. Questions often ask for the date on which a book was first published, and, of periodicals, for notes on the history of their publication, date of first appearance, changes in title, whether still issued, name of body responsible for publication and of

publishers, and so on. These, and others of their kind, are enquiries with which a centre should deal.

It goes without saying that no centre is itself qualified to answer all the requests it receives. It has to depend very largely on other sources of information. Thus the British National Central Library forwards many requests to those of its Outlier libraries which are specially qualified to deal with them: sometimes, with the consent and frequently at the request of the Outlier, it puts the enquirer into direct touch with this, or some other institution likely to have the required information, and leaves the matter to be settled between them. This way of dealing with an enquiry often proves of great value to the enquirer.

It is difficult to say what will be the size and type of staff needed at a centre. It has to be sufficiently large to build up the required organization, the reference library, union catalogue and other records, and it has to grow with this, to be able to keep it up to date, work it, and handle enquiries quickly and thoroughly. To handle enquiries thoroughly it is essential that the staff shall be allowed to preserve its initiative: "A very real part of the business of an information service is to safeguard the organization for which it works from becoming hide-bound with tradition . . . initiative is of high importance; and initiative cannot exist side by side with too slavish a subservience to routine" [B. 60, p. 43]. A centre is an information service which builds up complicated and constantly growing machinery: but its work in dealing with enquiries is not, and never can be, mechanical. The human element is much too strong. Enquiries will often come in such a form that they cannot simply be passed through the machinery, and the machinery is so susceptible in its construction and operation to human error that the answers it provides—especially when negative—cannot always be automatically accepted by its staff. It is of great importance that the staffs of library centres shall not become enslaved by the organization which they have to build up.¹

It is indispensable that the senior members of the staff shall be well educated in a general sense, and well trained in library work; but it is also very necessary that there shall be a staff

¹ More is said on this in Chapter 4, especially on pp. 116-120.

adequate to deal with routine work, and especially to get the various communications off quickly enough.

A centre, whether regional or national, should be in the largest library available. In itself, the centre need be little more than an office, and the words office or bureau (or "information bureau"—*Auskunftsbureau*, *bureau de renseignements*) have become extensively used to describe them. In a few cases, as in Denmark, where the national centre is still not actually in a library, and as originally in Prussia, where the Bureau was for a short time outside the State Library, centres have been constituted as independent institutions, offices; but nearly always they have been formed in, and usually as a part of, the greatest library available. They should be in such a library, for they need access to large collections of bibliographical reference works, and will be greatly assisted by the advice of experts in bibliographical matters to be found in a large library. Furthermore, a centre attached to a large library will gain a prestige from its position which will be important for the success of its work.

Work of Centres. Regional Bureaux. This, of course, can also be divided into internal organization, and relations not only with the libraries of its region but also with the national centre.

Its internal organization will be of a kind similar to that of the national centre but much smaller in extent. The main business of the bureau is to supply books, not so much to give bibliographical information. It will not attempt to duplicate all the reference books in the national centre, but will make only a small working collection of these (lists for a basic stock for a British Regional Bureau could be obtained from such books as B. 18, 22, 33). It will also not assemble large files of information. Indeed, if it collects anything in this way it will probably consist of material of local interest, although, as even this will be done by local libraries, it should perhaps only compile an index to material elsewhere. The staff of a regional bureau can only be small and its main work must be in dealing with enquiries and in compiling a union catalogue. It will, of course, collect some other information, and will, in all probability, be attached to a large library whose resources it can use.

The first thing to be said about the transmission of enquiries is

that a local librarian should state all applications explicitly, and, in carrying through each transaction should abide by the rules of the bureau or centre with which he deals, and the library from which he obtains the book. In particular he should follow those rules governing acknowledgments, refund of postage, duration of loan, and care—including the packing—of a book borrowed. In dealing with a request for information he should obtain from the applicant full particulars on what exactly is needed, and should send these to the centre with any comments he may be able to make on the reader's attitude to the subject and standard of knowledge in it.

We must also ask whether a librarian should attempt to borrow, for any reader, any book which he himself cannot supply—is the librarian to make any discrimination between readers or between the types of books supplied? In considering an application for transmission to a bureau a librarian must, obviously, both be reasonably sure that he cannot answer it himself, or is not entitled to use the time necessary to answer it, and also that it is required for a serious purpose which will justify the cost of obtaining it, and especially the expense to the lending library. He should feel that the loan is necessary and that it will be fair to all concerned.¹

It is clear that a librarian should not normally ask for a book which is essentially a reference book, or for one of any kind which may be in considerable demand in other libraries, or for a cheap book in print which the enquirer could buy for less than the total cost of effecting the loan.

These conditions are meant to apply to immediate, e.g., regional, co-operation between libraries which each have a local clientèle. They do not altogether apply to the relations between such a library and another which is purely for lending. For example, the British National Central Library can lend any book, except its working reference books, without inconvenience to itself. It has no local clientèle, no home service, and in the British regional bureaux requests for any books likely to be in local demand in libraries within the region, should be sent straight through to the National Central Library and no attempt

¹ The question of cost is dealt with on pp. 71-84.

made to answer them locally. It is a sound basic principle of regional co-operation that books should be supplied locally if possible, but this principle must not be strained. If a central library exists which is purely for lending, full use of it should be made.

For the rest, a librarian must be guided by the pressure of work and the demands on his stock. Where these are great and he is compelled to restrict his loan service, either in answering or in making requests, the general practice seems to be to deal only with requests for advanced students. This is done by some libraries in the U.S.A. The Library of Congress, for example, will only lend to other libraries, not to individuals, and will only lend at all in response to requests made on behalf of advanced research workers, not even for students working for a post-graduate degree. It has been compelled to restrict its loans in this way because of the great demands made on it.

It is generally recognized as wise that enquiries should only be sent to a bureau through the reader's local library and not directly by the reader himself. This ensures that questions which could equally well be answered by the local library, are not sent to the bureau, which is not only relieved from dealing with them, but is also safeguarded from frivolous enquiries made by individuals who get the habit of enquiring for enquiry's sake. It also ensures that the fullest personal use of libraries is made by the public.

For both these reasons, and especially for the second, it is important that a local librarian should do all he can to answer enquiries himself. He will naturally do so if the request is for a specified book; and he should also if it is for a book on a subject or for bibliographical information. This is emphasized not so much because such an enquiry may be answered by a book or information sent from the bureau or another library and which the enquiring library finds to be available in its own stock—a reply obtained at unnecessary expense and delay—but because some enquiries, especially those for information, can be best answered in a personal conversation. All librarians want people to get the habit of using, understanding and finding their way about in libraries, of using books and especially reference books.

The education of the public in these matters is a most valuable object of our work, and there is much yet to be done in it. It often cannot be done by correspondence with satisfaction to either side, but must be done by the librarian on the spot. The best answer to a simple question can often only be given personally: a librarian can take the man who wants some information on the life of John Bunyan to the *Dictionary of National Biography* and to the author catalogue, and in a few minutes explain to him how he can, in future, quickly obtain information on the life of any great character in British history. This kind of thing the librarian will always do; but he can also often personally help a reader who is making an advanced enquiry more than a bureau or centre could by correspondence; for on the one hand he can find out exactly what is in the enquirer's mind, and on the other can take him to actual sources of information and put him in the way of tracing more for himself. A librarian who will himself try to deal with bibliographical enquiries is doing a public service of great importance. On the value of this work see article "Personal Librarianship" by R. D. Hilton Smith in *Library Review*, 28, 1933, pp. 160-5; and, for useful practical hints, the notes by H. Woodbine in *L.A.R.*, December, 1934, pp. 465-6, and "How to study reference books," by Martha Conner in *L.J.*, Feb. 15, 1928, pp. 159-162, and Flexner (Jennie M.) and Edge (S. A.): *A Readers' Advisory Service*, pp. 59. N. York, 1934 (Review in *L.A.R.*, Feb., 1935, pp. 84-6.)

For all this a librarian may sometimes justifiably send to a bureau an enquiry for information which he could answer himself: he may know, for instance, that the bureau or the national centre possesses material which would enable it to deal with an enquiry in a few minutes, which he would have to spend some hours in solving. The matter must be at his discretion, but the principle should be to answer questions on the spot when possible.

Something has been said above on the kind of enquiry which should be forwarded; but in deciding whether an enquiry is the sort which a centre should be expected to answer, a librarian must be guided by circumstances. It is very difficult to say what is not a legitimate application; for one which should not be sent by a large general library or a library specializing in a certain

subject might justifiably be sent by a small library or one which does not specialize in that subject. It is, of course, clear that a library cannot forward all questions it is unable to answer, as centres can, at present, only deal with bibliographical queries.

So much for the requests which should be forwarded—the relation of libraries to the bureau: we can now discuss the reverse—the relation of the bureau to the libraries of the group.

The questions which a bureau issues to libraries in its group will consist partly of those received from them and partly of requests from other bureaux and the national centre. But of the total received many will be answered by the bureau itself from information in its union catalogue and library; and those sent out to the libraries will be issued, where necessary and possible, in corrected form.

The manner in which they are issued depends on the nature of the bureau, the libraries and the questions. If the bureau has a large staff, a union catalogue, large library and other records, it need issue few enquiries. If it is small, with no union catalogue or other sources of information, it may issue all enquiries to its libraries. They may be issued in a selected way or each one may be sent to each library. The former method may be used where the bureau is strong, the number of enquiries small, the number of libraries large or greatly varied in type. So the Berlin Bureau could not possibly multiply lists of enquiries and send them to all libraries in the *Leibverkehr*, nor would it be wise to do so because so many of the libraries are specialized. It has a large enough staff to sort the enquiries and send copies of each to a small number of libraries each likely to contain the book. If the libraries are of the same kind and are few, it is best for the bureau to issue lists of enquiries to them all simultaneously and at regular intervals. This is not only a convenience for the bureau, but also for the libraries, as it is easier to deal with such a task which can be worked into a regular routine, than with single enquiries coming in irregular quantities and at unknown intervals. By the list method libraries will, of course, receive a larger number of enquiries than by the other, but they will see at a glance enquiries which are not meant for them and with which they need take no trouble—a theological library, for

example, will ignore queries for scientific books, and will only deal with those for books or information which it might be expected to have. For it must be remembered that where enquiries are circulated from any centre, the time spent on each item by all the recipients of the circular except one, is largely wasted time : not entirely, because it may be useful in future for the centre to know of several copies of a book, but at the time it will probably need only to accept one offer. By the multiplied list method a bureau sends its enquiries quickly and cheaply to all sources at one attempt ; it gets to know the resources of its region, the whereabouts of all copies of valuable and useful books and special collections, and is able to distribute the loan service as equitably as possible.

It is, of course, an important part of co-operation that libraries should answer these enquiries as accurately, speedily and fully as they can : and in the prescribed manner. They may also help by giving additional information, while not always being able to supply the matter required. They may be able to point out that a book is wrongly described, or to direct the bureau to some special source to which the application might profitably be sent. The British National Central Library which, of course, still deals directly with university and other libraries as well as with the Bureaux, receives much help from libraries in this way.

The relations of regional bureaux to a national centre are much the same as those of libraries to a bureau. All applications from bureaux should normally be sent only to the national centre, from which some will be issued again to the other regional bureaux. Each bureau, as each library, should try to answer a request itself before sending it on, and should state as explicitly as possible all requests forwarded. An exception to the former point has already been noted—that requests for books likely to be in demand in local libraries should be forwarded immediately to a national centre if that is also a national lending library.

National Centres. The work of a national centre has been more or less covered in what has been said of centres in general and of regional bureaux. It has to serve all the libraries in its country, but, where regional systems exist, will only receive enquiries from and send them to regional bureaux. Its relation

to other libraries and the general nature of its work largely depend on whether such bureaux exist or not. If they do not exist, the national centre's ideal tool is a union catalogue of all the libraries in its country, and it must have a representative collection of printed material relating to national bibliography, and an index to special collections in libraries. It will then work directly with libraries, tracing books by those aids and by circulated enquiries. It will need a larger staff than it is likely to get, of librarians and junior assistants, and will be hard put to it to deal with applications, the organization and use of its bibliographical material, the issue of enquiries and reports, and the compilation of its union catalogue and other records. If the country is divided into regional areas it is not so essential that the national centre shall have a complete union catalogue, for instead of having to issue large numbers of enquiry lists and never being able to send them to all possible sources, it will only have to send them to the regional bureaux, each of which will answer for all the libraries in its area. In Great Britain there will be only 12 of these bureaux, whereas there are perhaps 200 general libraries to which circular lists should be sent, and a great many more smaller and specialist libraries, some of very great importance. It will also not be so essential for the national centre to have a complete set of secondary bibliographical material, for, between them, the regional bureaux will be in touch with sources containing most of this matter.

Yet although not so essential, it will still be very desirable for the national centre to be equipped with these resources. The object of the regional bureaux is to assist the national centre in a common task. Neither can achieve it by superseding the other; both are necessary. The function of the bureaux is to relieve the national centre of some of its work in tracing books and supplying information, and to assist it to obtain resources which will promote the general work, and their own. And the one of these is a national union catalogue is easily shown.

In the first place, even where regional bureaux exist, a national centre will, if it has a national union catalogue, be able to obtain books with much greater speed. Without the catalogue and enquiries must be issued on lists, and it may not be possible to

these to be sent out more than two or three times each week : so that replies from all bureaux to any list will not come in until at least a week after the centre received the applications on it. The centre must then arrange for located items to be sent to the applicants, who cannot receive them for at least 3 days more. But with a national union catalogue the centre can communicate with the appropriate bureau at once, and applicants might receive their books in 6 days (allowing 3 days for the enquiry to reach the national centre via a regional bureau) instead of in a minimum of 13 days—which will usually be longer because of the time taken to compile the lists and the probability that these cannot be made long enough to include all the applications received.

In the second place the national centre will be able greatly to limit the number of enquiries sent to the bureaux. This will enable the whole organization to be managed at less expense.

Finally, much valuable information will be available which would be lost if union catalogues progressed no further than the regional stage. This is brought out in Chapter 4 ; but it may be noted here that the indication of gaps and duplicates which a union catalogue gives would be a most useful guide to the national centre in its book buying. It might well, for example, set itself the task of filling such gaps by endeavouring to obtain the missing books for its own stock, and thus " completing " the stocks of the other libraries in the country. It might also, from information in the catalogue, guide other libraries in the problem of discarding and exchanging books.

In addition, the most efficient and economical way of compiling a union catalogue probably is to compile it on a regional basis. If the regional bureaux can each make a duplicate union catalogue for their respective areas, one copy can be sent to the national centre, which has to do little more than amalgamate these to have a national union catalogue. This is being done in England.

For similar reasons the national centre should possess a complete set of the national bibliographical literature : with this it will often be able to supply books and information more quickly than it otherwise could, and without unnecessarily troubling the bureaux or other sources.

The national centre must itself possess much information, and to obtain this and also to carry on its work—for however complete its resources, it will always have to issue enquiries—it must largely depend on the assistance of regional bureaux and other sources of information. Co-operation cannot consist merely of a standing agreement to lend books, and of an initial joint effort to organize a system which, when “completed,” will be managed entirely by one institution: the effort for organization must also be a sustained thing. It will certainly decrease in intensity after the initial stages, the establishment of national and regional centres and the compilation of the main bulk of the union catalogue, are completed, but libraries will always be called upon to assist regional bureaux in their organization, as these will be to assist the national centre in the same way.

Partly for this reason, some standardization in organization and even in points of general library practice is desirable between all libraries and all centres. Where there is complete centralization and the national centre is itself a large library, it will be greatly helped in compiling a national union catalogue, however it does this, if there is some agreement in cataloguing methods used by libraries. And this is even more true where there is a measure of decentralization, for here the staff and the national centre will not be so large, will not be able to edit all entries received, but will expect to be able to amalgamate contributions from the bureaux more or less in the form in which they come in. This standardization is chiefly desirable in cataloguing, as is shown in more detail in Chapter 4, but it is also desirable in general organization in centres and libraries, in such matters as classification, application and other forms, methods of compiling statistics, filing arrangements and professional terminology. It is helpful not only in building up the organization and in the supply of matter from libraries to centres and from one centre to another, but also in relation to the enquiries which are sent from the national centre to the bureaux and from these to libraries: for it is important that a centre shall understand as exactly as possible the nature of every source of information with which it may have to do, and the precise sort of information each can supply. This is made more difficult if there are wide

divergences in methods between one centre and another or between the various sources with which these are in touch.

The activities of a national centre extend beyond its own country. No country can itself possess all the books it needs, and all will have to borrow from abroad. Of course small countries will borrow more, in proportion to their size, than large countries, just as small libraries will, on the whole, borrow more than large ones, but it will be necessary for all to borrow. To do this, enquiries should be sent through the national centre in the applicant's country, both to make sure that the books are not available within the country, and because there should be in each country only one point for contact with the libraries of another.

Use and Dis-Use of Centres. A main object of co-operation is to obtain as good a service in interlending and the supply of information as possible, and it is undesirable to introduce or preserve formalities which would cause unnecessary delay in this service. A library may sometimes have good reason to believe that another can supply a particular book, and feel that it would be a waste of time to enquire for it to a centre rather than directly to this other library. But there are strong reasons why one library should apply directly to another only when it is certain that this can supply what is wanted, and only too when this is wanted urgently. A library can only be certain that another can answer its request by making a preliminary enquiry. It may know that the other recently had a particular book, but cannot know that this is at the moment available or even that it is still in the possession of the other library. It can also not be sure that it is the nearest copy available, or the one of which the loan is most likely to cause least inconvenience to its owners. In England a library at Newcastle-on-Tyne may send a request to the Northern Bureau for a German book, and, after some days, the request having passed through the Bureau and the National Central Library, and no copy traced in Great Britain, the book may be eventually obtained through the *Auskunftsbureau* in Berlin, from the University of Göttingen. If, later, the same library needs the book again, it may feel that the best thing to do is to apply directly to Göttingen. And it may prove to be so. Yet, for

the applicant's own sake, it is usually unwise for such direct application to be made. Another copy of this book, traced only in Göttingen before, may be found a little later in Great Britain, perhaps in the Northern Bureau area and possibly even in Newcastle. The probability may not be great but will be the higher in proportion to the incompleteness of union catalogues. Of greater importance is the fact that if enquiries are made directly, harm is done to other libraries and the scheme of co-operation. A librarian may have private knowledge that a book is in another library. If he applies for it directly, this knowledge remains with the two libraries concerned. If he applies through a centre, telling that of the book's whereabouts, the fact will be recorded by the centre and made permanently available for all future enquirers for that book. Direct enquiries will also result in an uneven distribution of the lending service as libraries with published catalogues will be called upon to bear the brunt of it. If all enquiries are made to a centre, this can distribute the lending service as evenly as possible. So that normally, applications should not be sent directly to another library but to a centre, the possible exceptions being those for books wanted urgently and known to be in a neighbouring library.

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CHAPTER III

CO-OPERATION AND GENERAL LIBRARY SERVICE

Co-operation and a library's home service. It has already been emphasized that the main object of co-operation is to put every library in a position to give a better home service. This cannot be over-emphasized since there is a tendency, and especially in larger libraries, to lose sight of it in regarding only that side of co-operation which consists of lending their own books. Co-operation consists of borrowing as well as lending; and in co-operating each library will not only better its home service by borrowing, for it will also be able to draw on a mass of organized bibliographical information for the service of its readers. It will be in a far better position to know what books to keep, and what to acquire: and will therefore be able to develop a stock containing a larger percentage of live books, not only as far as its own readers are concerned, but also as judged by general standards, than it can do now. It will free its shelves and staff more for books and work known to be of value, and occupy them less with matter of uncertain worth.

Co-operation may bring more work, and will certainly bring new work for all libraries. On one side this will be entirely directed to home service. It will consist of obtaining books and information which each library cannot supply from its own resources. But although this work is new, it is merely a natural development of home service, which is, and always must be developing. To-day we classify and catalogue minutely, we issue readers' guides and other aids and advertisements, we have a larger measure of open access, and we lend more. We keep other things than books—illustrations, slides, cuttings, maps and music; we sometimes have readers' advisers, we have libraries for the blind and children's libraries. These were all innovations not long ago, but now most of them are an accepted part of regular home service. And these activities were largely real

innovations ; but to supply our readers with as many books as we can, and to make as full use as possible of our stock and work, is only an expansion of work which has always properly belonged to a library.

So much for the side of co-operation which will improve a library's home service, the benefits to be gained. On the other side is the service to be given. We have to examine this, especially to see how it may affect the home service of the giver. It consists of lending books and giving information. Now it is obvious that although a library can always use its discretion as to the services it should give, a system can only work satisfactorily if there is an equitable degree of reciprocity among all concerned : and, in joining a system, a library will naturally decide to be ready to give, if possible, at least as much as it receives, and probably as much as it can, without hurting its own local service. But no library is expected to lend everything. The work is primarily intended to help readers to obtain uncommon material, and material for which there is not a widespread immediate demand. It is not directed to solve the problem of the demand for large numbers of very new books. It may legitimately contribute to a solution of that, but a librarian will have no complaint to make if his request for the loan of a new book is unsuccessful. All will know that books can only be lent which are not required by their owners. This is the obvious principle of lending between libraries. For this reason systems usually prohibit applications for all books of the quick-reference type, dictionaries, encyclopædias, and so on, standard text books of any date and price, and current numbers of periodicals. Nor are books to be lent which any library should buy for itself—as very cheap books which are in print. Neither is a book to be lent which is not required for a serious purpose ; so, for example, fiction is normally excluded from inter-library loans. And as the work is directed to bring into service serious books which are neither in regular use, nor too valuable to lend, the bulk of applications should be for those very books which can most easily be lent, and everything should be done both to ensure that applications are normally for books of this kind, and to encourage such applications to be made. In lending such books and giving

bibliographical information, a library is promoting use of matter which might otherwise lie dormant; which every library will wish to do.

For all this, it is undeniable that a librarian may sometimes do a disservice to his own readers—which is directly opposed to the purpose of co-operation—in lending a book to another library. No one can say what book will not be asked for by a reader at any time, and in dividing their stocks into what are for their own readers “live” working books which are rarely to be lent, and a “sleeping” stock which may be lent, librarians will sometimes make mistakes and lend a book which is required at home while on loan elsewhere; and will, of course, be unable to class many books into either of the above headings and have to take some conscious risk in lending them. But this difficulty, already met in local lending, must now be faced in lending to other libraries.

Because one of the duties of a librarian is to preserve literature, and because the library atmosphere has been essentially conservative, libraries have unduly restricted their activities to the service not only of their own community, but to service within their own walls; and successive librarians have seen their charges grow, working largely for posterity to reap the rewards of their labours, and, as a result, giving only a part of the assistance of which they were capable to the development of knowledge and culture in their own day. The shelves of all libraries contain many books, in some to be numbered by thousands, which will never be used so long as each library's service is largely restricted to one community.

Libraries have been slow to depart from the “storehouse” tradition, and to realize that books in their relation to the public are not the same now as they were in the Middle Ages or even in the early part of the last century. Books are now so numerous and so essential to every branch of the community, that to make use of their resources and fully to serve the community, all libraries, with a few exceptions, must take an active part in inter-library lending. To keep thousands of books permanently in a library because a few may be wanted by local readers is too high a price to pay for a hypothetical service to these readers: and is likely to cause libraries to be regarded by the general public as

effective institutions. We need a new attitude to reference libraries, and there are signs that such an attitude is growing. They should be much smaller than they are, and should be confined on the one hand to books to which frequent reference is likely to be made, and on the other to those of real rarity and value. Such books are, of course, now placed in reference libraries, but with them are generally to be found a far greater quantity of books, many of which have been put there because they are not likely to be asked for at all. For this very reason they should be kept free for loan. This practice of tying up books has been described as an "attitude of fear" by one who says that "while it is the business of the popular librarian to see that books are used carefully, *use* and not preservation is his main purpose. By far the great majority of books, although vital on their own day, are unlikely, as history proves, to be of any use to posterity. The British Museum and a few like libraries do all the preserving that posterity will need."¹ An earlier authoritative comment on the reference department in British Public Libraries says: "That the average reference department has not attained this standard of efficiency is due to several causes . . . the form, date or cost of many . . . works has secured for them a resting place in the reference collection when they might have given useful service elsewhere . . . the desire to form an excellent reference collection, which will not be adequately used, should never be indulged at the expense of the . . . lending department. It is certainly better that many expensive scientific and technical books should be worn out in circulation, while they still rank first in their class, than that they should stand unused on reference shelves . . . When in doubt, place in the lending department is a good rule, for when not actually on loan the book is available for reference readers." [B. 215, pp. 60-1]. At the Library Association Conference in 1927, Mr. E. Osborne said: "The cost of these municipal reference libraries, outside our largest cities, is out of all proportion to their use . . . the time has come when the provision of large reference libraries can seriously be questioned. If there is to be a national pool of books [as in the National Central Library, then local reference libraries can be

¹ L.A.R., May, 1933, p. 165. A review signed W. C. B[erwick] S[ayers].

smaller, and] . . . A municipal library, limited in size, would mean additional funds available for work in other directions " [B. 203, pp. 11-12].

Furthermore, although it is admittedly undesirable that a book required by a local reader should be on loan to another library, the seriousness of this can be exaggerated. In the first place it is agreed that it is the duty of every librarian to take reasonable precautions to prevent the contingency from arising. It is therefore not likely to happen frequently. In the second, a library can at any time recall a book lent; or, of course, and by reason of the inter-lending scheme, probably borrow another copy of it. In the third, as union catalogues grow and the general organization of co-operation develops, centres will have full information on the whereabouts of books and will be able to send requests for loans to libraries which can most probably lend without inconvenience. Finally, a library which has borrowed from others will have a good case to justify its action in answer to any complaint that may be made by a local reader that a book he needs is lent to another library. He can be told that other local readers have obtained, and more, perhaps he included, will obtain, books from other libraries which could be had in no other way.

Co-operation will bring extra work: this in the early stages will consist chiefly of contributing to a union catalogue, and later mainly of keeping this up to date, of making enquiries to and answering those from centres, in packing and sending books, and in routine correspondence in refunding postages and returning receipt forms. All of the work is directed to two ends, of which the first is to satisfy enquiries from local readers which could otherwise not be satisfied, and the second is to promote the use of resources which would probably at that time otherwise not be used at all. On all grounds this is valuable service. It is natural service for libraries to give; it is necessary and it is practicable. That it will bring additional work is, of course, no argument against co-operation, but rather for it, if it is agreed that the results are practicable and worth while; and they are widely agreed to be so by those who have had experience of it in a fully established scheme. It is, indeed, of greater and more active,

practical value than some other work which is now done by libraries; and, as time goes on, libraries may find it possible and right to modify some of their present work in favour of this other. They may, for instance, be able to do this in cataloguing and various forms of "processing" books, the keeping of statistics, and the handling of fiction.

Co-operation will do much to stimulate individual efficiency in all libraries. The actual work which it will bring, and the very fact of contact with other libraries, will promote interest in professional matters and the spread of new ideas in them. It will do much to disperse the bad elements of the parochial spirit, but will certainly stimulate pride in local efficiency because this will, as never before, be put to the test in working with other libraries. This result may be incidental in co-operation, but is of great importance.

Co-operation and Specialization. It is clear that these mutually react as cause and effect. Either must do much to bring about the other. They cannot exist apart. Whatever we feel about specialization, it is a condition of our times. We know that no library can approach "completeness" or keep pace with the current output of literature; and that although adequacy of service increases with size of stock (usually in a diminishing ratio to that) the general inadequacy is so great that every library is forced to concentrate on some subjects at the expense of others, i.e., to specialize. But even the smallest so-called special library, professedly so-called, cannot possess all it needs, partly because you cannot be "complete" in any subject which is at all of general interest, and partly because no subject can be studied by itself. It is, therefore, but a reasonable thing to combine specialization with inter-lending, and to spread out this specialization among libraries in order to cover as many subjects as possible. (See B. 55a, 63a, and B. 207, No. 19, 1934-5 for the practical use of a union catalogue by British universities to rationalize the acquirement of German periodicals.)

Specialization is, of course, only a means to an end, not an end in itself. If it were carried to such a point that the value of any library which has to serve a general public was seriously impaired as a reference library, it would do far more harm than

good. Much duplication will always be necessary and right. It is quite true that organized specialization, which will become more feasible as co-operation develops, will enable libraries to buy books to better purpose. Instead of 100 libraries each buying a copy of the same book, it may be seen that 50 copies between them will be sufficient, and such restriction would enable 50 other books to be bought. Of course, no scheme of workable organized specialization can be imagined which will completely rationalize book purchase in this way: but the machinery of co-operation, and especially union catalogues, will make it a much more efficient matter than it is now. And that is all that is aimed at. It is not suggested that libraries should specialize so as to be able, between them, to collect the greatest possible number of different books. If that were the object, libraries would cease to be of much use as reference libraries, and might almost as well go out of existence and give the task to one huge central lending library: an idea that would almost be paralleled by a suggestion that our schools should be abolished and teaching conducted by correspondence from the Board of Education.

Libraries are not mechanical agencies simply for collecting and indexing a group of material, which will have reached their object when they have together amassed a complete collection of at least one specimen of every variety of this material, and are able to maintain that position. They are educational institutions with activities directed towards other ends which are of great service to the public. They have the duty of selecting what is best in literature to be made available for public use and to be preserved, and of arranging it so that by its very arrangement it is of increased use to readers. They catalogue it carefully and from different aspects in order to make it as accessible as possible. Librarians learn how to use libraries and books, and how to find a right way through the literature of a subject, and they assist others to do the same. In these and other ways, rather than attempting to obtain a complete collection of literature, they serve the community: and it is an efficiency in these matters which distinguishes a library from a collection of books. It is of greater importance that a library shall be efficient in these

things, even though it be isolated, than that it shall be inefficient in them but able to say that it can provide from its own stock or obtain from elsewhere almost any book required. The ideal is that it shall be both. So far in library history, libraries have naturally concentrated on internal efficiency: now they wish to increase their general efficiency by co-operating, not to impair it. And so the value of any effort made in organizing co-operation, and any result from it, as in the matter of specialization, is only to be judged as good if it eventually makes a permanent improvement in a library's service to its readers.

Most libraries were not founded for the whole community of any country, and much less for the world community, but for special groups of readers: and each has a personality peculiar to itself which is the direct outcome of its service to one community. For each, this personality brings added vitality, and is a valuable thing. But the result is that the library service in every land consists, in the main, of a large number of unco-ordinated local services. This, as it affects the possibility of specialization, is, of course, particularly true where libraries do not lend except to their own readers, as, until recently, in Great Britain. There is no country with so many large libraries which still do not lend as Great Britain: indeed, elsewhere there are few libraries of this kind; even the great national libraries, counterparts of the British Museum, lend books, in, for example, Germany, Austria, Scandinavia, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, France, Italy and the U.S.A. In these countries, and particularly where inter-lending has been long organized, a tendency for libraries to specialize has resulted. In Great Britain, there has as yet been no time for such a tendency to make itself felt. The National Central Library, from its inception in 1916 until its outlier system began to develop in 1927, was probably the library having the greatest effect on others throughout the country in encouraging specialization by its lending service. There were few other libraries lending books in this way at all. Notable among the few were Dr. Williams' Library and the Science Library, and even though these lent more to individuals than to libraries, it is very probable that many libraries did not buy some books on Protestant theology and on scientific subjects because they

could borrow them from these institutions. The great "copyright" libraries and such others as the John Rylands in Manchester, which do not lend, can have had no effect on libraries outside their own localities. No library not within easy reach of these could refuse to buy books required by its own readers because they were possessed by any of these libraries, and no library even in their neighbourhood could always avoid buying such books if they were wanted by its own readers for home reading. In 1935 there are 150 outliers to the National Central Library, and 371 libraries in the Regional Library Systems which are linked together by the National Central Library. Any library not refusing to take part in a system can now borrow books from all these, and so all can now buy more books on particular fields, and spend less on books for which they have only a passing need. This is the right way for specialization to develop, keeping pace with the requirements of every library, and not pursued as an end in itself.

In countries where interlending has been longer established and is more widespread than in Great Britain, the practice of specialization is really different only in degree. Everywhere national services consist of a large number of libraries mostly independent of each other. Each sets out primarily to serve a particular, usually a local, community. It acquires the books wanted by that community, and, since most librarians have to be showmen and make much of the size of their stocks, any other books it can get. Of books bought, it obtains, if possible, only enough copies to satisfy the needs of its own readers. Most libraries are therefore "general" in character: except in the small special libraries, specialization does not usually go beyond a broad division into "scientific," "technical" or "commercial," "literary and philosophical" or "theological" and any of these usually has to be widely interpreted.

With such a system, specialization cannot be intensively developed, and can only be developed at all as the organization and practice of inter-lending develops too; very modern books cannot be borrowed, and union catalogues are the most satisfactory way of recording the whereabouts of books and effecting loans.

We can, of course, imagine a national system of a number of

specialist lending libraries which could together cover practically all fields of knowledge and possess most of the world's best literature. These libraries would, of course, differ from those of to-day not only in specialization and lending. There would be a different spirit about them. Each would, for instance, have a new attitude to the acquirement of books. The spirit of local enterprise and individuality would largely disappear, and, above all, reference libraries would almost entirely cease to exist. Reference libraries, not only, or chiefly, in the sense of libraries which do not lend, but rather as places where research may be carried on. No scholar, no student even, usually knows all the books he will need in any piece of work. He cannot have them all borrowed for him ready for use at home or even in a local library. He is frequently, in the course of his work, in need of other books, that is largely why he has to work in a library at all. It has indeed been proved that you cannot equip a carrel even in a large general library, to contain all the books a scholar working in it is likely to need [B. 39, pp. 61-2]. This is so true that no library specializing rigidly on one or two subjects could ever be a good reference library. No subject can be studied by itself, and information necessary to the study of any subject is contained not only in books on it and in general reference books, dictionaries, encyclopædias, biographies, atlases, and so on, but is scattered through books and periodicals which may be primarily concerned with subjects quite other than the one studied.

Hence, although such a system would enable more books, even modern books, to be borrowed more easily, and without the necessity of union catalogues, it is an impossible system, since, by it, libraries would cease to be of value as reference libraries, which would be a calamity to the public welfare. Indeed, it would not greatly matter where libraries were situated, and it might be best to bring them all together to make one great national lending library, for although centres would know where to apply for books, time would still be lost and money spent on correspondence; and administration and overhead expenses would be tremendously and unnecessarily increased if they were spread over a large number of libraries: the system would be one of book supply substituted for one of libraries.

What we need is a combination of a better book supply with better, not necessarily larger, reference libraries. In such a system the first essential is the safeguarding of local reference libraries: but the practice of lending between these should be greater, and facilities for it improved. This means the arrangement of systems of co-operation as described in Chapter 2 and the development of specialization as far as that can be done without injury to the service of each library as a reference library.

Inter-relation of small and large libraries in co-operation. It has been noted that one of the great problems is to make it easy for libraries of different types to work together. The solution depends on a mutual understanding of each other's position and a common agreement about the main purposes of the scheme—the supply of books and improvement of home service. But hardly less serious is the problem of making it easy for libraries of different size to work together, even when they are of the same type. Because of this difficulty, some systems have not only been restricted to libraries of the same type, but, even among these, to libraries of similar size, as, originally, in Prussia. The difficulty is, of course, with the small libraries. In the first place it is hard for the small library to contribute in work or money to the building up of a co-operative system. A large library can usually spare an assistant to work at contributing to a union catalogue: a small library with a staff of only two or three cannot: nor can it easily cope with the work which co-operation itself brings. In the second place, just as small libraries can put proportionally least into co-operation, so the general feeling is that their need for it is greatest, and that they can get most out of it. This is true: but it is possible to misinterpret the position, to appreciate incorrectly implications to be drawn from the fact that large libraries are always likely to lend more than they will borrow. The feeling that small libraries gain disproportionately may be exaggerated because, although in the ideal every library shall be able to get any book, the small library will not normally ask for many more books in proportion to the number of its readers (which should have some relation to the size of its stock) than will the large library in proportion to the number of its readers. This is, of course, only roughly true, because the

increase in no library's readers corresponds to the increase of its stock, but it has some truth in it. It depends on the kind of library. The British County Libraries provide an exception. They are new, and have small stocks in proportion to the population they serve, and consequently may for some years ask for more books than larger libraries will require. But they lend much now and will do still more in the future.

At the same time small libraries will, in general, probably always borrow more than large libraries, and not only more in proportion to the size of their stocks, but actually a greater number of books. This will be especially so in the early days of a scheme before a union catalogue is completed, because the centre will be in a large library which at first is likely to be drawn on heavily, often supplying books available elsewhere, as that fact will not be known; and later, since the large libraries will be quicker in contributing to the catalogue, they will receive more requests to lend than the small libraries will receive.

When a scheme is properly working, the obvious remedies for making loans from the small libraries more proportionate to those from the large, are for the large libraries to restrict their loans to, and to increase their borrowings from, the small libraries.

Some large libraries seem to be reluctant to adopt either course. They make no attempt to restrict their loans in answer to legitimate requests, but are generous in meeting these, as, indeed, often in meeting others, with the result that they can annually report that their loans greatly exceed their borrowings. Now the reason why large libraries borrow little seems to be not so much that they cannot get the books they need, although they will naturally require a greater proportion of books which are hard to get than the small libraries will, but that they ask for so few. The large libraries may say that this is so on the one hand because they have little hope of obtaining many of the books they want from small libraries, and on the other because they can themselves buy most of the books they need. With regard to the first point, some large libraries may under-estimate the resources of small libraries, which all have some special interests; and the large libraries should make use of this fact. In doing so,

and even in encouraging this specialization, large libraries will benefit themselves and co-operation generally; and it may be found that a number of specialist small libraries can collectively be of as much use, and possibly of more use, to a large library, as it can be to each of them. Even so, of course, the large libraries will always lend more than the small ones, but if the former will rely more on the latter for books on subjects in which these specialize, the difference will be lessened.

There are reasons why a librarian of a large library may hesitate to rely on small libraries, even where these are highly specialized. He may, for instance, question the efficiency of a library with a small, and perhaps untrained, staff; and he may know that some small libraries cannot buy very expensive books, even on their own subjects. But he should recognize that he can get much from them, and that he will often find in them librarians with a better knowledge of the literature of a particular subject than is possessed by any member of his staff.

There is no criticism to be made of the other point, that a large library may prefer to buy all the books it possibly can, provided that in doing so money is being spent to the best advantage. A library can always easily spend on books all it can obtain for the purpose: what it cannot easily do is to be sure that all this money is well spent; and it is certain that some books, for which there is likely to be only a passing need, should be borrowed rather than bought. These borrowings need by no means restrict expenditure on books, they may rather free money for the purchase of others or more copies of books already possessed. But if the borrowings do result in a reduced expenditure on books, a library may be able with the money saved, to do much else of value to itself and others, improve its own organization or buildings, increase its staff, do bibliographical work as in the production of printed catalogues, special bibliographies or facsimiles of its rarities.

It is possible, however, that some large libraries do not really wish to increase their borrowings or decrease their loans; and that they derive a satisfaction from the fact that their transactions in the latter much exceed those in the former. A librarian may justly feel proud that his library is extending its service to assist

many others and is able to meet most of its own needs from its own resources.

Such a feeling may well be the outcome of a high sense of service, but even so, if a large library in any scheme endeavours unduly to keep in its own hands most of the lending, the effort is not co-operation. Every chance should be given to the small libraries to lend ; it makes for the smooth working of a system if the general feeling is that each library is contributing its proper share ; it maintains and stimulates the interest of all in the work, and will do nothing to injure the efforts of the small libraries to be efficient in themselves. It is a bad thing psychologically for a small library to feel that its only function in a system is to borrow. If the services can be shared by all, and the small libraries can assist the large and also free some of the funds and energies of these for new purposes, the result will be for the general good.

An attitude of mind in a large library to lend much and borrow little would be only less bad in co-operation than the opposite. This is, of course, only said of such an attitude which is unduly maintained. The effort which many large libraries have made to ensure the establishment of systems by bearing the brunt of lending in the initial stages, is admirable.

But this matter need not be elaborated, because large libraries must realize that small libraries can help them both in direct loans and in freeing them from making other loans ; and this realization will make them use the small libraries and help them from a motive which may be more satisfactory than one of altruism. Yet happily there will always be room for altruism. The large libraries will always be called upon to lend books to many libraries which can hope to assist them little : but in making such loans their work may be regarded, and widely, and especially by themselves, is so regarded, as being a natural service which is no more than one of their proper functions. Most great libraries depend chiefly for their origin and maintenance upon a particular community, a local community, or that of a university or other society. But although they owe their existence to this body and must primarily serve it, it has always been recognized that libraries, and especially large libraries, are for the service of all who are striving to obtain or spread knowledge. This has

always been felt, but has been and is, rightly coupled with the proviso that such service must not be allowed seriously to injure a library's service to its own readers ; and librarians have erred on what they have regarded as the safe side, in protecting the interests of their own readers. They now feel that their work for these and for posterity can be coupled with a much greater service to the present than has been given.

This view of one duty of a large library forms the chief reason why it should lend books and give information to small libraries from which it can hope to get little in return. It may contain an element of altruism, but is a duty.

There is another less important reason which is not altruistic at all. Although most large libraries owe their existence mainly to some particular community, yet they all from time to time receive assistance in gifts of books and even of money from persons, libraries and other institutions which are outside that community. They already have some obligations to the community at large. The better known they are the more likely are they to receive such assistance in future ; and the service they can give to other libraries, could, if it is wished, be regarded as an advertisement which will bring them returns. The great libraries will, by their extended services, increase their importance to the community at large, that is to say they will increase the size of the community they serve, in a way which may be of great use to them. For instance, as co-operation develops, many of them will come to be regarded as central institutions where other libraries will pool little-wanted books. They can therefore expect that in due course they will receive a material recompense for the service they give now.

Those are the grounds for saying that it is right for large libraries to assist small ones. First, the large libraries can, if they will, get much out of it in the books they may borrow from small, particularly specialist, libraries. Secondly, they already owe some service to the community at large and stand to gain more from that by serving it more : and finally and chiefly, it is the duty of any library to extend its service as widely as possible, and it is possible for most libraries to do this at the cost of little, if any, detriment to service to their community.

Organization and control. So far, little has been said on these points in a national system of co-operation beyond a mention in Chapter 1 of the simple fact that if there is some central control the organization of co-operation is greatly facilitated. The question depends entirely on the existing library conditions in any country. If there is state control of libraries, the organization and control of a system of library co-operation will be done through qualified librarians by the state. In most European countries, with the notable exception of Great Britain, the chief libraries and systems of co-operation are so controlled. But in all countries the movement for co-operation has been begun by librarians, and national systems were preceded by small local systems instituted entirely by the librarians concerned.

It is natural and best that a system should begin in this way ; for co-operation is a difficult art, its success is largely dependent upon goodwill among the participators, and this feeling is only likely to obtain where there is freedom among these to have considerable choice of the ways and means in which they will co-operate and with whom they will do so.

But the value of central control is obvious. However much enthusiasm there may be in the libraries of a country, they will not be able to arrange themselves into the most suitable regional groups, or other organization, unless there is an authoritative body forming a point of contact between them which can receive the views of all sections and sift the matter out with regard to the welfare of the libraries as a whole. There is no question on the desirability of this. Central authority is needed to formulate and put into effect the best organization and to standardize procedure, as far as that is necessary. The questions are, as to the nature of this authority and the limits of its power ; and answers to these must largely depend on existing conditions. If the chief libraries are not controlled by the state, they must invite such control for the co-operation, or form some other authority for it ; and if the latter is done the nature of this authority may vary in different countries. But whether the control is in the hands of the state or not, it should be exercised not only through a representative committee of librarians, but through the national library centre. This should be not simply a passive institution

waiting for enquiries, but should endeavour to co-ordinate the work of regional schemes or other parts of the organization, and develop co-operation generally throughout the country; although it must, as far as the work in each section of the national scheme is concerned, be subsidiary to these, a subsidiary strength. Its success is to be measured not as it supersedes regional centres or individual libraries, but on the contrary, as it strengthens them.

From the accounts given below, something of the work and effect of central control will be seen. In Germany the state took a measure of control of co-operation in Prussia at a comparatively early stage. There was, however, no federal control for the formation of schemes in other German states, nor direct state influence in the later development of regional co-operation, nor in the extension of the exchange lending scheme to non-state libraries. But the power of the state enabled the Prussian union catalogue to be made and the arrangement for books to be lent between all libraries at a total cost to the reader of 10 pf. a volume. In Holland the main scheme between the academic libraries would not have been started but for the influence of the state. In Switzerland the state has made the national centre possible and has given a great impetus to the work by allowing books to be sent post free.

In Great Britain there is no state control of libraries; and neither the state nor other authority yet controls co-operation between them. But the need of a central body to guide the work was recognized as early as 1927 in the Report of the Public Libraries Committee [B. 215]. "While we do not ask for a general government grant, nor advocate a system of government inspection, we recognize that there is a real need for some central organization for furnishing advice and stimulus" (p. 150, §428), and "We do not recommend the compulsory imposition of a regional organization. We do, however, cordially recommend it for voluntary adoption" (ibid. p. 156, §445). Up to September, 1931, the main points of contact between the various systems were the headquarters of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and the National Central Library (until March, 1930, called the Central Library for Students). In particular Mr. L. Newcombe, Librarian of the latter, had been in touch with most systems from

their inception and was an original member of the committees of each of the regional bureaux founded in 1931; and his advice and the information he brought to each system of the work of the others, was of great value to all. Mainly through his efforts a National Committee on Library Co-operation was formed at the Library Association Conference in 1931. The main functions of this committee, on which the Regional Bureaux and the National Central Library are represented, are to act as an advisory body on all matters concerning existing or potential regional areas, and to provide liaison between the regional bureaux and the National Central Library. It is, as suggested in the report of 1927, an advisory, not a controlling body.

In all cases, whether there is state control or not, the movement for co-operation has always originated among librarians and library authorities and has been developed by them without state aid to a more or less advanced stage; and where the state has intervened it has always done so at the request of the librarians. These points serve to emphasize the fact that a prime necessity for co-operative work is a unity among librarians. In Germany, Holland and Switzerland, where state control exists; in Great Britain where it does not, and indeed, in all countries where co-operation flourishes, the success of the work can in a large measure be traced to the existence of a strong association of librarians.

Cost. The cost of co-operation can, of course, be roughly divided into two parts (1) that of setting up and maintaining institutions and machinery necessary for the work; (2) that, to individual libraries, of taking part in it and especially, both to the borrowing and the lending library, that of making a loan.

The first item cannot be dealt with generally, partly because the whole art of minimizing this expense naturally lies in making use of existing institutions and machinery, for which opportunities vary greatly in different countries, and partly because different conditions demand different kinds and degrees of elaborateness of machinery.

If the system is small, between only two or three libraries, and if there is no immediate intention of making a union catalogue obviously, very little money is needed. One of the participatin

libraries can be relied on to give the part time use of a room and the services of a member of its staff, and little more is needed except application forms and perhaps other stationery. Examples of this kind of arrangement can be seen in the small systems started in England before the Regional systems came into existence, and in the Regional system for Yorkshire; and abroad between the technical libraries in Holland with centre at Delft, and between the libraries in Austria where a system (slightly larger than that between the British Universities from 1925-31) has done good though limited work with the minimum of organization and cost.

But if the project is to set up a bureau and make a union catalogue, immediate expense is involved. In England the Northern Regional Bureau spent in its first year £844. 18s. 10d., using part of a grant of £3,000 from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and receiving no subscriptions from libraries. The West Midlands Bureau in its first year spent a net sum of £554. 3s. 1d., of which £363. 8s. 0d. on the union catalogue came from a similar Carnegie grant, and £190. 15s. 1d. from library subscriptions totalling £373. 8s. 6d. These subscriptions varied from a minimum of 10s. to a maximum of £50 per annum per library. In England, experience seems to show that the regional systems require about £3,000 to become established, to get union catalogues effectively started and bureaux set up, and an annual income of at least £300 for maintenance. It appears that such an income can be obtained without great difficulty from the subscriptions of a minimum of about 50 libraries serving a population of some two millions, but that no system would be likely to obtain an initial sum of £3,000 from these libraries. That difficulty has, in England, been solved by the generosity of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which has also made possible the development of the national centre, the National Central Library, which has only since 1930 received from the state an annual contribution towards part of its upkeep.

But in forming a national system, the first principle is to make use of such existing institutions and machinery as can be profitably used: so that those countries which start with a general practice of lending between libraries, a national library which lends, a

strong association of librarians, and a large number of printed catalogues of libraries and a more or less general practice of printing lists of additions, start with considerable advantages. If their chief libraries are state controlled and if there are well defined areas within each country for regional systems, then the work will be easier still. And of all the problems which will have been simplified, that of cost is the most important, since it is bound up with every other problem.

From the accounts below of the work in various countries it will be seen how such features as these have been utilized. In all cases the first essential is a national central library, and in most countries this has already existed in the chief state library, the national library. In Austria, Hungary, Sweden, Norway, Holland and Italy, little more has been thought necessary than that the respective national libraries should assume responsibility for the work, and in these countries comparatively little expense has been involved, apart from the appointment of a small staff (of from two to five persons in each), providing office accommodation and equipment for this, and meeting the annual costs for correspondence and material used, stationery, cataloguing cards, and so on.

In Germany, the work began by an arrangement between two Prussian libraries, but the state soon took it up. The chief libraries, including the national library, were already state-controlled lending libraries. Practically all that had to be done was to appoint a special staff at the national library. Here the work started in more propitious times than, for example, in Austria, and was of a more ambitious nature, the central staff was larger and a complete union catalogue of the libraries was begun. The cost of all this was borne by the state, but nothing new, except the special department, the *Auskunftsbureau*, at the State Library, had to be created.

In Holland, the work was immediately centred in the national library and use was made of the extensive printed catalogues of libraries and of the practice among these of printing lists of additions, to build up, very cheaply, a union catalogue.

In Switzerland, co-operation not only started but developed to an advanced state among the libraries of some cantons which

were subject to cantonal but not to federal control. Now it is centred in the national library which receives from the state about 15,000 francs a year for the work.

If a national centre has to be formed, and a national system created by regional systems built on the national centre, and if a national union catalogue is to be made, it is impossible, with library finances everywhere as they are, that all the money can be found by the libraries themselves. The movement must be subsidized in part from some other source, which should be the state. Where libraries are state-controlled this simply means that the state should make them larger grants; and where they are not, that the state and local contributions to libraries should be greater than they are. In either case this is only to say that the country should spend more on its library service, and every country should do this, quite apart from the consideration of co-operation; but in financing that, it is making its library service of greater use to the public.

In most countries, libraries are actually financed both from the national exchequer and from local government authorities. This is indicated in such titles as "Staats und Universitätsbibliothek, Breslau," "Bibliothèque de l'Université et de la Ville, Genève"; these and many other libraries receive grants both from their states and their localities.

It is so with university libraries even in Great Britain; here the British Museum is financed entirely by the state, the municipal and county libraries entirely by their localities, but the university libraries partly from their own funds—endowments and students' fees—partly from grants from their localities and partly by grants from the state.

In all European countries except Hungary, Denmark and Great Britain the national centre is in the national library; and there are good reasons for the exceptions. In Hungary the centre is in the university library at Budapest, because although there is a national library which lends and is also in that city, the university library is also a state library, is larger and older and in closer touch with the other libraries of the country. In Denmark the centre is in the headquarters of the State Inspectorate of Public Libraries, in Copenhagen. This has no library, except a

small collection of books on librarianship and of bibliographical tools, but it is within easy access of the Royal, University and Public Libraries in the city. It is financed by the state. In Denmark there is a large and well-organized system of Public Libraries, and comparatively few others; and this centre is intended to serve the Public Libraries. The Public Libraries of Copenhagen stand, to a certain extent, outside the general system, and therefore the centre has been placed in an institution to which Public Libraries all over the country turn for information on library matters of all kinds, rather than in any of the large libraries in the capital. The few large state and special libraries make little use of it, but themselves circulate their enquiries. In Great Britain, the national library, the British Museum, does not lend, and so when the Departmental Committee of 1927 was looking for an institution which should be made the national centre of co-operation, it selected the Central Library for Students (now the National Central Library) since it was purely a lending library, and was already co-operating with libraries throughout the country, and had indeed already formed the beginnings of a national system for the loan of books between libraries and had started to make a union catalogue. It has been supported partly by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and other Trusts, partly by the State and partly by subscriptions from other libraries. From 1925 to 1929 the average total income of the Library was only £6,351; from 1930 to 1934, when the State annual grant of £3,000 (£2,700) was received, the average was £9,667. In the year 1934-35 the total income was £9,329. This has had to cover everything—maintaining the national lending library, the information department and union catalogues, and supplying books to adult classes. It has had to meet book purchases, the salaries of a staff of 25, and overhead expenses of a large building, and has consequently been inadequate.

In all countries except Great Britain, national centres are financed by the state, so largely too are local systems, since the main participating libraries are usually state libraries, although in many local systems, as in Geneva, some financial support is obtained from the locality. Where libraries must finance a system from their own resources it is always difficult to assess

equitably the subscriptions which each should pay. These should be assessed with regard to each library's ability to pay, and not with regard to the use it may make of the system. So for instance, in the case of British Public Libraries, it has seemed best to assess subscriptions in proportion to the population served by each library. The object of the work is to further the cause of learning. It is not a commercial matter. If libraries are asked to pay in proportion to the use they make of a system, there is a danger that a poor library might be compelled to restrict its use of it, to the detriment of the object of the work, and that a centre might be tempted to favour a rich library as an actual or potential subscriber of large amounts—to bring a commercial spirit into the work and turn the system into a massed subscription library. Such a spirit would bring many results which would be definitely bad; it could only bring one that might be good—an incentive to officials of the system from the fear of losing subscriptions or the desire to obtain more. It is believed that no such incentive is necessary; and it is certain that it might have bad results.

We may now turn to the second section of costs, that which must be borne by the individual libraries, and in particular, that of effecting loans. This introduces two difficult questions: (1) What is this cost? (2) Who is to bear it?

There may be a great difference in the cost of dealing with any two applications. One reader may ask for a book on a particular subject, or a very rare book, or submit an inadequately worded application. His librarian may try unsuccessfully to answer it himself, and then send the application to a centre which may also make an unsuccessful search, and several letters may pass about it. The centre may circulate the enquiry to many libraries, and send it to other centres which may do the same. It may even go to a foreign centre which in turn may cause enquiries to be made at various sources. Eventually a list of books may be sent to the reader's library and one or more of these borrowed, perhaps from different sources, perhaps even from abroad. Applications must be separately made for these books, acknowledgements sent, postage refunded, and, finally, the books returned. Such a business may well extend over two or three months, entailing

considerable correspondence and the use of much time by many people. It will also cost an appreciable sum in postage; and there may even be charges for registration and insurance.

Another reader may submit a fully stated application for a definite book which his librarian knows that he has not got and will not buy. He may forward this immediately to a centre which has a record of the location of a copy, and may be able to send it by return. Such a transaction may cause no appreciable loss of time to anyone, and the total cost of effecting it may be put at the postage involved; and there may even be no postage.

These are two extreme cases; there are others, naturally, of every shade of difference between them.

So far as I know, the cost to both the libraries concerned of effecting a loan, has been worked out only in the U.S.A.—Elinor Hand: Cost survey in a university library [B. 54]; H. L. Leupp: Cost survey of the University of California Library [B. 55]; Charles H. Brown: Inter-library loans: an unsolved problem [B. 51]; and Marion J. Ewing: Borrowing from our neighbours [B. 52] (see also *L.J.* 1933. 17. 780, 791, and 19, 890 and B. 56a). Here Miss Hand and Mr. Brown show from a limited investigation that the average total cost for effecting a loan between two libraries is about \$3.50, of which the cost to the borrower, which includes postage each way, is about \$2.25, and the lender about \$1.25. The investigation, also limited, conducted by Miss Ewing shows that the average cost of postage was 24 cents, that of service in borrowing being estimated at from 20 cents to \$3, and that of service in lending at from 83 cents to \$1.59. Miss Ewing's results show a lower cost, and so the figure \$3.50 may be taken as an average likely to be too high rather than too low. This cost does not include depreciation due to wear and tear of books lent.

Now this cost is, at first sight, a considerable sum, and when Mr. Brown, in the article mentioned, says: "Certainly there should be a keener realization that the average volume borrowed will cost the two libraries concerned about \$3.50," it may be generally agreed that the point does need emphasis. It will of course be recognized that since wages and general expenses are higher in the U.S.A. than in Europe, the cost in Europe will be

less than this : but at the same time it will be natural, and especially with non-librarians, for the cost of borrowing a book to be compared with the market value of the book borrowed, and in the U.S.A., this is not likely to average much more than \$3.50. And if this is true in general, it could be argued that it is almost as cheap to buy books as to borrow them, and is more satisfactory. It is, however, easy to show that such a contention would be wrong, and that too, without taking notice of the fact that in buying a book the buyer pays all the cost and in borrowing only a proportion of the cost of effecting the loan—on the above evidence 66 per cent.

In the first place it is certain that some of the books borrowed could not be bought. Their market value may be great or small, but they do not come on the market : they are out of print and unobtainable at second-hand. It is also certain that a great many more are only obtainable at second-hand, and some of these only after great delay. Their purchase might entail much correspondence which would add considerably to their actual cost. Some others will be foreign books, which although in print, can, like the others, be obtained by purchase only after delay ; sometimes arriving too late to be of use to the enquirer.

Other books will be unwanted permanently in the library, and their purchase will mean that books which are wanted permanently, will not be bought. Others will be too expensive for the library to buy.

We are left with what will probably be, and indeed with what should be, a small number of the items borrowed, consisting of non-foreign books still in print, which the library could afford to buy, and which will be of permanent use to it. And there are good reasons why even books of this kind might be legitimately borrowed rather than bought. They might be borrowed in answer to a request for a book on a particular subject ; a library not knowing of their existence until obtaining them on loan: or because, although aware of their existence, a librarian is not sure that they would be of permanent use to him. No librarian can know of every book, or always be sure of the nature and value of those which he does know to exist. Again, they might be borrowed to meet a special need, e.g., a librarian may have one copy

of a book on loan, or at the binders, when required by another reader, and he might not be justified in buying another copy. There may be a temporary need for several copies of a book and a librarian may rightly refuse to buy additional copies and rightly borrow them.

And finally, putting all these considerations aside, it has to be remembered that to buy a book is in itself a cost. Just as the cost of borrowing is not confined to postage charges, so the cost of buying is not confined to purchase price. Unfortunately, none of the American writers noted above gives any figures for the cost of buying a book. Mr. Brown and Miss Ewing are not concerned with it. Miss Hand notes it as a cost, but says that the cost survey system used by her library proved inadequate to produce a satisfactory result on the matter. The costs involved in buying a book are apparently complicated. It is probable that the average immediate cost is rather less than the average cost to the borrowing library of borrowing one. But it is a cost ; and one which has to be added to the purchase price when the average expense of buying is compared with that of borrowing.

And the matter does not end here. The business of buying a book costs something in addition to the purchase price, but when a book has been selected, ordered, received, unpacked, checked and paid for, its expense to the library, far from being at an end, is only beginning. The book is now library property and has to be put through a number of processes each of which is a charge on the library. It has to be examined, and if it is valuable, illustrated or second-hand, this will be done with care ; its pages may have to be cut, and it has to be stamped. It has to be classified, which requires skilled work, entered in an accessions register and numbered. It next has to be catalogued, which may take up considerable time of one or more librarians. A book-plate, issue-label and ticket-pocket may then be pasted in it before it is displayed with the new books. A notice of it will probably be typed and perhaps printed in a list of new additions to the library, and after a few days it will be placed in the general stock. The worst is now over but the book will, through all its life, remain a continual charge on the library.

those of private institutions make a charge for lending? It can be argued that the members of private libraries also subscribe to the public libraries, for they also pay the local and state taxes from which these get their funds. Yet a public library dependent on local taxes in one district is under no obligation to lend books to a private library in another; and if it does so, and without charge, can reasonably expect that that library will lend similarly in return.

The domestic concerns of a library are its own affair, but if it joins a scheme of co-operation, it should do so under the same financial conditions for the lending of books as are accepted by the other libraries.

The difficulty of making a charge for lending "where the borrowing institution has nothing to offer in exchange" is that already mentioned, of deciding when this is so. Co-operation is a widespread business and "returns" often come from unexpected quarters and in roundabout ways. A library may borrow to-day from one which has never lent it anything before. A library A may lend fifty books in a year to library B and borrow none from it; but B may have borrowed none from, and lent fifty books in all to, libraries C, D, G, which between them may have borrowed none from and lent fifty books to A. Furthermore, the service cannot be reckoned in terms of loan for loan. A library may lend a book which is of considerable value or is fragile. It may take much trouble in insuring, registering and packing it, and the cost of the loan, above the charges for postage and so on, may be high. Another library may lend a small, common book at very little cost. A library may buy a book in order to meet a request for a loan, or it may make special arrangements to expedite the delivery of a book required urgently, or go to much trouble to find a book required to give particular information. Differences of this kind make it impossible to balance one number of loans against another in terms of money, or even in value as services rendered.

For these reasons it is generally agreed that the only costs of lending to be recovered are those of postage; including any special costs as of insurance or registration. Unless there is a reciprocal agreement that lending libraries should be responsible

From time to time it will have to be moved ; it may have to be re-classified, re-numbered, re-catalogued and re-labelled. It will always need dusting, and will always take up room. It might have to be bound on arrival, and will very probably have to be bound at least once during its life in the library, and may need other minor repairs. Miss Hand does not give the cost of all these processes, but it is of interest that she gives the average cost of cataloguing a book at $72\frac{1}{2}$ cents and of binding at \$1.74.

It is impossible to conjecture the other costs ; some, such as that of maintaining a book on the shelves, would be extremely difficult to obtain, but it is clear that in comparing the average cost of borrowing with that of buying, three costs have to be included in this latter : (1) that of service in making the purchase, (2) the purchase price, (3) that of entering and maintaining a book in the library ; and it is clear that the total cost of borrowing is unlikely to be more than (1) and certainly no more to the borrowing library, it will certainly be less than (2) and much less than (3). So that the average total cost of buying is certainly four times greater than that of borrowing, and, if postage is recovered from readers, it is greater still. If a book will be frequently used in a library, it is, of course, cheaper to buy than to borrow it, even though every issue of a book is a charge on a library. These remarks are, of course, only made to act as a guide for an appreciation of the comparative costs of borrowing and lending when such comparisons are necessary, and not at all to make a case for borrowing in general as against buying. The value of building up reference collections has been repeatedly emphasized.

In considering these costs it must be remembered that a library usually buys books in quantities but borrows them singly or in small quantities : so that the immediate service cost in buying fifty books may not greatly exceed that of buying one. It will exceed it and will include the cost of selection ; but we are concerned with a comparison of the cost of buying and borrowing one and the same specially requested book which was not on a library's buying list. In these notes too, the cost of borrowing has been an average of all books, including those most difficult

to obtain; the discussion of buying has had relation only to those books which are easy to obtain.

We may now turn to the second question. Who should bear the cost of borrowing a book? This also is not easy to answer, but it is almost generally agreed that the service cost of borrowing i.e., the cost other than that of postage, must be borne by the libraries concerned, the lending expecting the borrowing library to refund only the postage on the book lent, and the borrowing library asking the reader to refund, at most, the cost of postage each way, including registration and insurance charges, if any.

Mr. Brown, in the article mentioned above, briefly suggests that in some cases public libraries might make a small charge for lending, saying: "It is difficult to see why such charges are not logical when the borrowing institution has nothing to offer in exchange." It is doubtful if such charges would ever be justified, but it is not easy to offer a general opinion. A state-supported lending library must lend to any public library in the country, whether that has anything to offer in return or not. And any public library may feel that its secondary function is to serve the community at large. Even if it does not do so, it will have difficulty in deciding correctly whether or not another library has anything to offer in return. It is certain that if libraries made such charges many would find that their receipts and payments in this kind roughly cancelled out, and that they had merely shouldered another burden in payments, receipts and accounting, which would be a waste of time and an added expense. From B. 56a it appears that only three American libraries that are at all of a public nature, make a charge for lending. It is believed that none do in Europe. For non-public libraries there may appear to be some ground for making such a charge. If, for instance, a society receives subscriptions from its members for the use of a library, it may seem unreasonable that this should lend to non-members for nothing. But in joining a scheme of co-operation the society's library will be able to get many books for its own members, give them a better service, just as every other library is able to do. Is it right that every other library should, in return for this, lend freely, and

those of private institutions make a charge for lending? It can be argued that the members of private libraries also subscribe to the public libraries, for they also pay the local and state taxes from which these get their funds. Yet a public library dependent on local taxes in one district is under no obligation to lend books to a private library in another; and if it does so, and without charge, can reasonably expect that that library will lend similarly in return.

The domestic concerns of a library are its own affair, but if it joins a scheme of co-operation, it should do so under the same financial conditions for the lending of books as are accepted by the other libraries.

The difficulty of making a charge for lending "where the borrowing institution has nothing to offer in exchange" is that already mentioned, of deciding when this is so. Co-operation is a widespread business and "returns" often come from unexpected quarters and in roundabout ways. A library may borrow to-day from one which has never lent it anything before. A library A may lend fifty books in a year to library B and borrow none from it; but B may have borrowed none from, and lent fifty books in all to, libraries C, D, G, which between them may have borrowed none from and lent fifty books to A. Furthermore, the service cannot be reckoned in terms of loan for loan. A library may lend a book which is of considerable value or is fragile. It may take much trouble in insuring, registering and packing it, and the cost of the loan, above the charges for postage and so on, may be high. Another library may lend a small, common book at very little cost. A library may buy a book in order to meet a request for a loan, or it may make special arrangements to expedite the delivery of a book required urgently, or go to much trouble to find a book required to give particular information. Differences of this kind make it impossible to balance one number of loans against another in terms of money, or even in value as services rendered.

For these reasons it is generally agreed that the only costs of lending to be recovered are those of postage; including any special costs as of insurance or registration. Unless there is a reciprocal agreement that lending libraries should be responsible

for these, they must be refunded by the borrowing library which must also pay for the return of the book. A point open to question is whether the borrowing library should pay these costs itself or recover them wholly or in part from the reader. Practice in this varies considerably. In Germany, in libraries in the exchange lending system, the full postage is paid by the borrowing library, the reader is charged only a flat rate of 10 pfg. (now often 30 pfg.) for each item. In Switzerland the question does not arise since the state allows books on loan between libraries to be sent post free. In the U.S.A. it seems that practice is about evenly divided. Miss Ewing, on p. 921 of the article noted above, states: "To the question, 'Who pays the transportation?' Eleven librarians reported that the library did. One, that the library paid one half and the . . . student the other half. Ten . . . that the . . . student paid the charges." In three other cases students in universities were asked to pay full charges, but professors none. In Great Britain most libraries recover postages from readers, but practice varies. An enquiry made by the National Central Library in 1932 showed that "Of 398 urban and county libraries . . . 79 urban and 5 county . . . pay postages both ways, 51 urban and 35 county . . . pay it one way, and 182 urban and 14 county . . . make the reader pay the whole amount . . . 10 London libraries collect the books they borrow, and so do not incur any postage charges . . . 2 urban and 1 county normally pay the postage one way but pay it both ways if the borrower cannot afford to do so. In . . . 13 urban and 2 county libraries the practice varies according to the circumstances. If the borrower can afford to pay the postage both ways he is asked to do so; if, however, he cannot afford this, the postage is paid by the library either one or both ways. One urban library makes a uniform charge of sixpence a book, the view of the Committee being that it is unfair to charge a person who happens to want a heavy book more than a person who wants a light one . . . Another urban library committee recently decided to discontinue their practice of paying postage both ways and to devote the money so saved to an increase of their subscriptions to the National Central Library . . . It is of interest to note that whereas readers of this library borrowed

during the three years prior to the adoption of this regulation 293, 295, and 284 volumes respectively, in the following year (1931-32) the number dropped to 147" [B. 207 :—1932. 19-20]. This enquiry was not sent to the universities ; among these the general practice seems to be to ask all readers to pay the full cost of postage.

On the whole it seems best that readers should be required to pay part of the postage : for although a reader may have some right to expect his library to supply him with any serious book, inter-library lending must be protected from abuse. Perhaps the best arrangement is to make a flat rate charge of a sum which is roughly the equivalent of the normal minimum of postage one way on a book, which is about sixpence in Great Britain and 30 pf. in Germany. If the reader is charged nothing, many frivolous requests for loans might be made. At the same time, no library wishes to penalize a poor student and refuse to pay the full postage for a loan which would otherwise not be made.

CHAPTER IV

UNION CATALOGUES

Something has already been said on the nature and use of union catalogues, and this chapter may therefore begin with the problems connected with their compilation.

It is clear that these must vary in degree and nature in different systems and that methods are largely governed by the general library conditions in each system, as well as by the purposes for which each catalogue is made. It is consequently impossible to generalize about these methods. It is, for instance, obvious that the difficulties increase with the number of libraries concerned rather than the size; it is likely to be a harder problem to make a union catalogue of 50 small libraries than of five large ones, even though each group contains about the same number of books. It is likely to be harder to make such a catalogue for 10 libraries scattered over a wide area than for 10 similar libraries situated close together. And there are possibilities which affect the question even more seriously. One system may be between libraries which are all of a high standard and much the same degree of efficiency; in another these may vary greatly. In the one you will have prompt and regular contributions of correct entries for the union catalogue from all, but in the other only from some. Nor is such irregularity always due to inefficiency and rarely to inefficiency which the library could alter. One system may consist of libraries similar in size, wealth, proprietorship, objects and type; within another these things may be very unlike. It is usually possible for a large and comparatively wealthy library to spare one or more of its staff to contribute to a union catalogue without greatly affecting its immediate service to its readers; but this is rarely possible in a small library, and when any library has to choose between sacrificing work which directly and immediately affects its own readers, and other work which does not so affect them, however much it may be for their

ultimate benefit, it must sacrifice the latter. Difference in type may present greater difficulties in compiling a union catalogue than differences in size and wealth. If a system contains libraries of different kinds, some may regard a union catalogue as a prime necessity, others as something only desirable, and others, and especially those which are of the nature of technical and commercial information bureaux, may regard it as of quite secondary importance, of far less importance, for instance, than a subject index to the literature of their own field.

Again, even where all are more or less of the same type and have author catalogues as their chief tool, the cataloguing codes used in them all may not be the same. Everyone knows the difficulty of amalgamating catalogues which have been made under different rules. Variations, in small matters as well as large, matter greatly when unification is attempted. One library may use the first part of hyphenated surnames for its main entry, another may use the second, and even give only the initial of the first part; one may use a peer's family name, another his title; kings and all titled persons, saints and church dignitaries, ladies who write first under a maiden name and then marry and maybe marry again, pseudonymous and anonymous books, periodicals, publications of societies from the League of Nations downwards; indeed nearly any book not written, and not so claiming to be written on its title page, by one author possessing a simple name which was never altered, can present problems to a cataloguer; and since catalogues were and are compiled under a great variety of rules, the task of unifying any collection of them is, for this reason alone, bound to be difficult. It is easy to imagine that where you have the same book catalogued in two libraries under different heads, coming, it may be, some way from each other in alphabetical positions, it will need a union cataloguer with a very careful mind and retentive memory, to observe that the second, handled perhaps months or even years after the first, is an entry for the same book as that, and to bring them together: for a union cataloguer will usually have no time to check every entry thoroughly. This problem is intensified by the fact that on grounds of economy many union catalogues have to be merely finding lists, where there is only one abbreviated

entry for each book, and few or no cross-references. There are reasons for questioning the value of these finding lists, even on the score of economy.

Most library catalogues are semi-bibliographical, the main entries reasonably full and the cross-references adequate. It is undoubtedly quicker, in copying these, to abbreviate the main entries and omit the cross-references; but when such copies of two or more catalogues are to be amalgamated, much more labour, time and care are required than would be needed for the amalgamation of complete copies of the catalogues, even though there would in this case be more material to handle. Moreover, since the staff is likely to be small, the first can never be done as satisfactorily as the second, and will always demand far more attention, be in continual need of adjustment, and will be a far less valuable tool.

It is perhaps natural to argue that since the prime object of a union catalogue is to find books, a finding-list is precisely all that is needed. But unfortunately, the matter is not so simple. A large number of enquiries coming to a centre will be imperfectly and incorrectly stated, by no means always due to a fault on the part of the enquirer. Many of these errors can be emended by preliminary research by the staff at the centre, who will always have to do this work so long as their union catalogue is only a finding-list. If it were a semi-bibliographical catalogue, much of that work could be permanently saved, because a direct reference to the catalogue would both solve the problem of the real nature of the enquiry and tell where the book was. With a finding list, many applications have to go through at least two processes, and often three, a preliminary revision, which may take much time, reference to the finding-list, and a bibliographical checking of the finding-list entry to see if it actually is for the book wanted.

Some details of the work of referring to a finding-list are worth considering. Take a book written by an author named John William Smith. Such a list may contain entries for it under any, or all, of the heads: Smith; Smith (J. W.); Smith (J. William); Smith (John W.); Smith (John William). These entries may well be separated in the list by entries for books by other writers of this surname. The application may come in any of the

above forms, but whether preliminary research determines the author's full first names or not, every entry in the list under the above five heads may have to be checked to find whether the wanted book is represented. If the application simply gives the surname, and preliminary research cannot determine even the initials of the first names, it may be necessary to check each entry under every kind of Smith; and if only the initials are found, all entries under Smith without initials and Smith with those initials as well as with all the various first names which they begin; although in either case, from the title or date (if given) of the book required, it will usually be possible to rule out some authors.

The fact of these variations in contributed entries which cannot be checked and expanded, together with the other fact of inadequately stated enquiries, provides a case for ignoring first names and initials in union cataloguing, and arranging entries alphabetically by titles under each surname. This practice is used in the *Sammelkatalog* at Frankfurt (see pp. 165-8). The objection to it is that titles are often incorrectly stated both in contributed entries for the catalogue and in applications: so that it does not solve the problem. Even so, it is probably the best plan if the catalogue is only a finding-list.

In considering this aspect of the nature of union catalogues it must be remembered that systems of co-operation are meant chiefly to assist those who are doing research. Such readers are just those who are most often in need of a special item, one particular part of a periodical or edition of a book, often to be identified by a date or the number of the part or edition, or the name of an editor, or even some less prominent point in description. Sometimes a finding-list entry may give the required detail, often it will not, and therefore, from a finding-list, some of these enquiries can only be answered in an uncertain manner, by sending, or notifying the enquirer of a book which may or may not be the one wanted; and some cannot be answered at all. And these results may occur when the enquirer's application is fully and accurately stated and there is actually an entry for the book in the finding-list.

Again, for reasons noted above, a finding-list is certain to be far less accurate in arrangement than a semi-bibliographical

union catalogue. The high probability of different entries for the same book occurring at different places in a finding-list, is hardly a possibility in a semi-bibliographical catalogue, where such discrepancies would be brought to light by cross-references : so that some entries in a finding list may be useless ; being under a wrong head and out of place, they may be overlooked for years by a staff which uses the catalogue daily.

A finding-list may also suffer generally and seriously from the psychological attitude to it of its original compilers. With the best of intentions, it is hard to make an accurate finding-list, because the main reason for this is usually a necessity for quick results. A cataloguer who sets out to make an abbreviated copy speedily, must make more general errors than one whose object is to make a complete and accurate copy. The attitude of mind in the one is likely to be a dangerous sense of release from the minute care, doggedness, close application and conscientiousness which are the *sine qua non* of the good cataloguer, and which will be preserved in the mind of the other. There is also a possibility that compilers of a finding-list, intent on producing large numbers of entries quickly, will copy from sources other than the actual catalogues of libraries, from accessions registers, shelf-lists, or lists even less reliable. So although British finding lists should, by their rules, give authors' full names, they contain discrepancies as in the case of Smith mentioned above, usually caused by the pressure of work on the staff making the entries. A finding-list can be an instrument in or through which it is extremely difficult to find many things it actually contains.

The arguments concerning the union finding-list and union semi-bibliographical catalogue can therefore be summed up as follows. The former is cheaper, quicker and easier to compile in its early stages, but is far less satisfactory when compiled. It gives inferior results, is always in need of revision, and requires its users to do much extra checking both of its entries and of applications. It is therefore more costly to use and maintain.

These points are not unappreciated by librarians, who are none the less often led to choose the finding-list for two good reasons. In the first place they are usually compelled to follow

any line which is the most economical at the time. In the second, the spirit of co-operation is comparatively new, and is far from fully developed. It is therefore important, in starting a system, to get something done, to be able to show results quickly. Promoters of a new system sometimes naturally feel that if initial progress is slow, difficult and costly, the system will lose support and may fail; and, if a union catalogue is contemplated, they are therefore forced to make it a finding-list.

If either of these conditions holds, then it is almost unavoidable that a finding-list shall be chosen: otherwise, the catalogue should be semi-bibliographical. And, to justify a finding-list, these conditions must be exactly as given. The necessity must be for *immediate* economy and/or results: for the ultimate expense of a finding-list is likely to be at least as great, and possibly greater, than that of a fuller catalogue, and the ultimate results much poorer. And it must be clear that the effect of immediate economy and results are more important than that of the inferior results which will follow.

The difficulty of keeping a finding-list up to date has been mentioned, and it is a problem with any kind of union catalogue. No library, of course, ever finishes its catalogue; it is always correcting entries and adding and withdrawing others. Notices of at least the major corrections and of all additions and withdrawals must be sent to the union catalogue, and this means considerable and continual work for each library.

If there is little uniformity in cataloguing among the libraries or if the notifications are abbreviated and the union catalogue is only a finding list, the centre will often have to do research on the notifications before they can be used. Indeed, a centre sometimes cannot be sure, from notices received, of the identity of books referred to, and has to enter into correspondence to clear the matter up: which is another argument for doing everything possible to normalize the catalogues of all libraries before a union catalogue is begun. This will facilitate greatly not only the initial compilation of the catalogue, but the task of keeping it up to date.

Perhaps the best way of obtaining notices of additions to a union catalogue is for the libraries to make use of a printed list,

as is done for the Prussian Union Catalogue, and has been suggested for that of the English South Eastern Regional Library System. But there is perhaps a good case for saying that with some libraries, as, for example, the British Public Libraries, notices of additions of new books should not be sent to a union catalogue until a year or so after publication. For, in the first place, these books are likely to be wanted locally and not to be available for loan—if a centre wishes to borrow them it should make special request for them. In the second place, this delayed entry may save some unnecessary adjustment of the union catalogue, for a library sometimes discards within a year books which prove to be of little value, or duplicate copies of others for which there was a large but only a passing demand. If libraries only contribute entries for books likely to remain in stock they save themselves, and the union catalogue staff, much trouble.

Having discussed the major difficulties we may now turn to the question of practicability; then examine methods by which union catalogues are made, and finally enquire into their value.

The first point is easily dealt with: to demonstrate that the compilation of union catalogues is practicable, it is only necessary to point to the number in existence; details of some of which are given later. The most important are: (1) the Union Catalogue of the Prussian State Libraries, at the State Library, Berlin, containing some 2,250,000 entries for 16 libraries; (2) that at the Rothschild Library, Frankfurt-on-Main, with over 4 million entries for a great number of libraries; (3) that at the library of Congress, Washington, with entries for about seven million books in libraries of the U.S.A.; (4) that at the Royal Library, the Hague, 750,000 entries for 30 Dutch libraries; (5) that at the Technical High School, Delft, 60,000 entries for 33 technical libraries in Holland; (6) the union catalogue in the National Library at Berne, 1,000,000 entries for 123 Swiss Libraries; (7) that at the Central Library, Zürich, for 20 libraries; (8) that at the Public and University Library, Geneva, for 53 libraries; (9) those at the National Central Library, London, together containing over 1,200,000 entries; (10) the two Welsh Regional Bureaux, totalling 500,000 entries for 54 libraries. There are also

large union catalogues in Austria, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Hungary and Belgium. [For old catalogues *see* B. 35, 56, 89a.]

These all refer to general catalogues of books; there are innumerable smaller union catalogues of special branches of literature, and especially printed catalogues of periodicals. Indeed, union catalogues of periodicals far outnumber any other kind. The first may be that produced in Milan in 1859, although one was published in Oxford, without date, but certainly before 1871. A bibliography of union catalogues of periodicals given in the American Union List of Serials, 1927, and Supplement, 1931 [B. 53], cites about 240 printed union catalogues of periodicals alone. The main volume itself contains some 75,000 entries for 225 libraries, and the supplements have already given a large number of new entries for many of these and 64 other libraries. With this may be noted the List of the Serial Publications of Foreign Governments, 1815-1931, 1932, which records all such publications as could be traced in some 230 countries other than the United States of America, and of these indicates the holdings of 85 libraries in the U.S.A. and Canada. Among others of importance are the G.Z.V. [B. 71] of 357 libraries with 17,190 main entries: the G.A.Z. [B. 70] having 14,573 entries for some 1,500 libraries: the *Inventaire des périodiques scientifiques des bibliothèques de Paris*, of the Académie des Sciences de l'Institut de France, and supplement, 1924-1929, with over 19,000 entries for about 120 libraries; the List of the Serial Publications . . . in the Libraries . . . of the Union of South Africa . . . by A. C. G. Lloyd, New . . . edition, 1927, with 3,117 main entries for 44 libraries; the Commonwealth of Australia, Council for Scientific and Industrial Research: Catalogue of the Scientific Periodicals in the Libraries of Australia, 1930, with 35,282 entries for 132 libraries: the World List of Scientific Periodicals, of which the second edition, London, 1934, contains over 36,000 entries, and records locations in 187 libraries (the first edition of 1925 had about 25,000 titles for 151 libraries); the Union Catalogue of Periodicals in the University and University College libraries of Great Britain and Ireland will contain about 50,000 entries, of which some 35,000 will be published, probably in 1936.

No further proof is needed that union catalogues can be made.

The problem of making them is largely, though by no means solely, that of obtaining accurate copies of the catalogues of the libraries concerned. Procedure in doing this depends on many things, of which one of the most important is the manner in which the work must be shared out. If the central staff is so small that it can only assemble matter received, and the burden of copying is thrown entirely on the libraries; not only accuracy, but uniformity of cataloguing among them is essential. The compilation will also proceed slowly and irregularly. If there is a large and trained central staff, well equipped with reference books; that staff may bear the brunt of the copying, or check, and if necessary re-copy, every entry received, and so ensure accuracy and uniformity.

Two other general conditions of great importance are the presence or absence of (1) some central control over the libraries, (2) printed catalogues of, and the periodic issue of printed or other multiplied lists of additions by, these libraries. General uniformity in cataloguing makes the compilation of a union catalogue comparatively simple, and this is most likely to obtain where all the libraries are of the same type. If no such uniformity exists, it is highly desirable that it should be established before work on the union catalogue begins: and this can only be done if there is some definite connection between the libraries, some central control. This was so in Prussia where there was no real uniformity in cataloguing when the union catalogue was projected even though the libraries were all of the same type; but since they were all state controlled, it was possible for a standard code to be issued through the State Library in Berlin, and all libraries in the scheme required to adopt it, and to alter their existing catalogues to conform to it, as the first step in the formation of the union catalogue. The existence of such control makes it possible for the whole system of co-operation, including every step in the formation of the union catalogue, to be standardized for all the libraries, and further ensures a consistency in compliance with it on the part of each library.

If each library has a more or less complete printed catalogue, and issues lists of additions, you have, of course, the most satisfactory basis of all for compiling a union catalogue, for you have

merely to cut up copies of all these, paste the entries on cards, and sort them into one alphabetical sequence. Copies of all the catalogues are already available and have only to be amalgamated. Even this, however, is not so simple as it sounds. In dealing with catalogues made at various dates, even for one library, and much more for a number, you will meet with work done under a variety of rules. So that when these entries have been prepared for assembling, much editorial work has to be done before they can be sorted in, both in normalizing them, and especially the alphabetical catchwords, which demands a thorough revision of all cross-references, and in recording on each the name of the library containing the book it represents. After the alphabetical sorting, duplicate cross-references have to be eliminated, and duplicate main entries removed after the location mark for each copy has been placed on the one entry to be kept. This is considerable labour in itself, and means, of course, that a large quantity of the entries carefully cut out and mounted have eventually to be destroyed. So that the compilation of even such a union catalogue as this, although comparatively straightforward, requires prolonged, skilled and careful work, and considerable expenditure.

Conditions such as these—the presence of central control and of printed catalogues—hold in greater or less degree in most European countries except Great Britain, and descriptions of union cataloguing under such conditions are given in the following chapters. Some examples are outlined below, but, for fuller information, reference should be made especially to the sections on the Prussian union catalogue (central control with libraries of similar type but without the use of printed catalogues), the Frankfurt *Sammelkatalog* and the catalogue of the International Institute of Documentation at Brussels (the independent use of printed catalogues of libraries of various types), the union catalogue at Berne, Switzerland (the use of printed catalogues of libraries of various types by an official centre, but without control of the libraries concerned), the union catalogue at the Hague (the use of printed catalogues of libraries of similar types by an official centre with some measure of control). It should be noted that all these catalogues are of a semi-bibliographical kind.

Particularly in Great Britain these conditions do not hold; but they are in most countries so varied that, actually, little existed to prejudice the adoption of one method rather than another. The main guiding factor has been that which is paramount in all such schemes, the power, whether financial or controlling, available for the purpose. As examples of union catalogues compiled under different conditions may be taken three, made respectively in Germany, Holland and England.

In Prussia it was decided to make a union catalogue of the ten Prussian state university libraries together with the State Library in Berlin. The centre was established in this latter, and after a standard set of cataloguing rules had been made there and issued to the others, a copy of the State Library's catalogue was made on slips. These were sent in batches on a tour of all libraries in the scheme, each of which marked those entries for books it also possessed, and made and inserted new entries for those of its books not recorded in the slips it received. Each batch, having been so treated, was sent on from library to library until it completed the circle and returned to Berlin: so that when the last batch was received there, a union catalogue of all the libraries had been assembled. This was a thorough way of doing the work, and the actual cataloguing and checking was done thoroughly. It consequently took some time—the catalogues of the eleven libraries, together containing some two and a quarter million different works, were unified in 19 years, including the War period. This was made possible by the conditions, central control and a small number of libraries of the same type. It should be noted that, from the outset, it was intended to print this catalogue (seven volumes have now appeared) so that it is semi-bibliographical. The whole cost of the work was borne by the State.

In Holland the movement was started, as in Prussia, by librarians. In 1921 the librarians of the Royal Library at the Hague, and of the four university libraries, representing their own and the other chief Dutch libraries, placed before the Ministry of Education the necessity of a union catalogue and a scheme for forming one. The Ministry supported the project, a State Committee on Library Service was set up, and in 1922 the

compilation of a union catalogue of the four university libraries was begun at the Royal Library. Since then other libraries have joined and there are now 30 in the scheme. The union catalogue does not include that of the Royal Library since there never was, as in Prussia, any intention of printing the catalogue. Most of the libraries had more or less complete printed catalogues, partly in book form and partly in lists of additions. Copies, in duplicate, were assembled at the Royal Library where they were cut up and the entries pasted on cards and sorted into one sequence. Before the cutting begins the Royal Library goes through the printed catalogues and normalizes entries as far as possible. It repeats this editing after the entries are pasted on the cards and eliminates duplicate entries, stamping on each main entry the name of every library possessing a copy of the book. Shortly after the work began, the cutting and pasting was given to a women's prison where it is satisfactorily done at a very small cost. (This idea was afterwards copied in Switzerland.) All the old printed catalogues of the constituent libraries have now been dealt with, and the printed lists of additions are cut up and incorporated as they are issued. The work has involved small costs which have been borne by the state libraries concerned, and chiefly by the Royal Library. No special grant for it has been made from any source.

In England printed catalogues are relatively very few, and there is no central control of libraries. But there is a strong association of librarians, and although schemes of co-operation have not been organized by this association, the contact which that has made between librarians has been of the utmost value in the development of co-operation. Here, also, the movement in its various fields has always been started by librarians. So far, it has received little aid from the State, and although it has had considerable assistance from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, the actual work has been carried through entirely by librarians. The fields which show the most interesting developments in general union cataloguing are the Regional Library Systems, of which that for the South-Eastern counties may be taken as a good example.

This system covers the counties of Bedfordshire, Berkshire,

Buckinghamshire, Essex, Hertfordshire, Kent, Middlesex, Surrey and Sussex, but excludes the county of London, and consists of 61 rate supported libraries (10 county and 51 urban public libraries). These vary in size, the smallest containing about 2,000 volumes of non-fiction and the largest about 164,000; but they are all similar in type. Each is quite independent of the others, and apart from the present system there is no organization linking them together in any way.

In 1932 a general meeting of the representatives of these libraries appointed a committee to report on the formation of a system, including the compilation of a union catalogue, and as a result, a union catalogue was begun in 1933 under the following procedure.

A staff of four cataloguers was appointed and a centre established in, but independent of, the National Central Library, London. To this centre nine of the chief libraries sent existing copies of the whole or parts of their catalogues, totalling entries for 308,000 volumes, and containing about 125,000 different titles. This is being copied in quadruplicate by the centre and each copy put in alphabetical order. The copies are made on slips attached to each other in batches of four, so that by the use of carbon papers four copies can be made at one insertion into the typewriter. The constituent libraries were then arranged into three groups, and three copies of the nucleus catalogue are being circulated simultaneously, one to each group. Every library agrees to check the corresponding part of its catalogue with each section of the copy of the nucleus catalogue as received, and to mark, in that, entries for those books which it also possesses. For books in its library not in the nucleus catalogue it makes separate entries, and sends these directly to the centre. Each section of the nucleus catalogue contains about 2,000 entries and every library is given one week to deal with each and send it to the next library: it is told by the centre the date on which it will receive each section, and as the order of circulation is constant, the addresses from which it receives and to which it forwards sections, do not change.

The triplicate copies of the first section were issued in March, 1934: and by the end of the following June each had returned

to the centre, where the accumulated information was then entered on the master copy of the corresponding section kept at the centre, and new entries made and inserted in that for books in the various libraries which had not been recorded in the nucleus catalogue. Since that time the work has progressed steadily, so that now the union catalogue has over 75,000 entries showing the holdings of 61 libraries, and it is estimated that the complete catalogue of some 450,000 different entries will be finished in three years after the original material for the nucleus catalogue was received at the centre, and 2½ years after the first section of the copy of this was issued to the constituent libraries; i.e., towards the end of 1936. The original cost of the union catalogue has been met by a grant of £2,500 from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, but the constituent libraries will also pay small annual subscriptions for the upkeep of the system. At present the Bureau uses enquiry lists as well as the union catalogue, and it is interesting to note that in its first inter-lending year (1934-5), 60 out of 61 libraries lent books.

Points of similarity and difference between these three schemes are apparent. In each the origin is due to libraries and the work is carried through by them. The ultimate procedure in the Prussian and English schemes is much the same; but in the former the cost and authority for organization and control were supplied by the state, while in the latter the cost was met mainly by the Carnegie Trust, but partly by the libraries, which also set up, by and of themselves, the whole authority for organization and control. In Holland the scheme received moral support from the state but was organized and carried through entirely by librarians.

These three catalogues contain periodicals as well as books: but separate union catalogues of periodicals have been made in most countries, and, in general, it is best that periodicals should be dealt with separately. The cataloguing of periodicals presents special and greater difficulties than that of books. The difference can be summed up by saying that for an author catalogue the words and their order for the heading of main entries are far more often self-determined by the title-pages of books than they are by the title-pages of periodicals for a corresponding catalogue,

"author" of course cannot there be used, of periodicals. The exact heading in the case of periodicals is rarely not open to doubt, and can hardly ever be determined from examination of any one number or even volume. The union cataloguing of periodicals must therefore be under the continual supervision of a central staff, and ideally the material should be collected by one and the same cataloguer from that staff visiting each library and cataloguing the periodicals there.

Mention has already been made of the large number of union catalogues of periodicals in existence, of such printed catalogues alone, there were at least 240 in 1931 (p. 92). To illustrate methods of compilation, good examples are the Prussian union catalogue of foreign periodicals [B. 70]; the American Union List of Serials 1927, etc. [B. 53]; and the Union List of Periodicals in British Universities now being compiled.

In 1914 a union catalogue of periodicals in Prussian libraries had been produced from the centre of the system of library co-operation at Berlin. In 1921 it was decided to prepare a new edition of this and to begin work on the foreign periodicals. The centre prepared a questionnaire and in January, 1923, sent copies to all libraries in the system. In answer it received between 80,000 and 100,000 entries which it began to revise, but could make little progress for want of staff and funds. In October, 1924, it received financial help from the *Notgemeinschaft der deutschen Wissenschaft*, and after completing the revision and eliminating duplicate entries, sent the slips out to the libraries again to be checked. On their return the entries were edited at the centre and printed in proof form. In 1927 the proofs were issued to 40 of the chief libraries for revision and then the catalogue was finally printed and issued in parts, the last appearing in 1929.

The catalogue includes all foreign periodicals, whether current or not, which were in some 1,500 libraries between the years 1914 and 1924. Periodicals issued by the *Internationale Arbeitsamt* (International Labour Office) and the *Volkerbund* (League of Nations) which appeared after 1924 have also been included.

The procedure of issuing and re-issuing entries to the libraries took time in itself and meant that the centre had to use much

time in working in the corrections made by the libraries ; but the editorial staff are convinced that the results justified it.

In the U.S.A. there had been many suggestions, since 1913 at least, for a national union list of periodicals. The list eventually published in 1927 was produced by the co-operation of the American Library Association with the publishing house of H. W. Wilson Co., New York. Finances were obtained by special subscriptions from some libraries, indirectly by a grant of \$10,000 from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, and by the publishers, who undertook to produce and sell the printed volume at cost price and to provide editorial headquarters and assistance in the editorial work, free.

The procedure is described in the preface and introduction to the 1927 volume : " It was decided to issue first a preliminary list called a ' checking ' edition, making this up from such records of periodical titles as were readily at hand. These checking lists were issued in 20 parts between March, 1924, and December, 1926 . . . They were sent to co-operating libraries with requests to have reports returned to the editor at specified times showing their holdings for the titles there set down and adding . . . titles not included . . . From the returns thus submitted were issued a series of eleven ' provisional ' sections between December, 1924, and September, 1926. After the return of the provisional editions the editorial force compiled the final edition as here set forth." So that the list was issued in 3 editions. " The first, or checking edition was made up of titles which it was reasonably certain would be found in American libraries. The second, or provisional edition, recorded for each of these titles volumes held by the co-operating libraries, together with additional titles submitted by them for inclusion. The third and final edition has been compiled from revised statements made by the libraries after the provisional edition had been in their hands from one to three years."

The original plan was to include not more than 40,000 entries for about 40 libraries, but as the work went on, so many fresh periodicals and libraries with valuable holdings were discovered, that the 1927 volume had 75,000 entries for 225 libraries.

The editorial staff saw none of the actual periodicals. " The

list is, therefore, not only co-operative in its method of financing, and in its statement of holdings, but . . . also . . . from the standpoint of bibliographical information . . . Conflicting statements from libraries . . . have always been investigated, but when the reports were irreconcilable, the entry stands in accordance with the weight of evidence." The high degree of accuracy obtained emphasizes the extent and high quality of the editorial work—"titles in 70 languages and dialects have been identified"—and that it was necessary to assemble a large reference library of bibliographical tools. An account of the work is given by F. K. W. Drury in "The Epoch Making Union List of Serials," and by F. G. Lewis in "Limitations of the Union List of Serials" (*L.J.* 53. 1928. 14-16 [Drury] and 178-9).

The idea of the Union Catalogue of Periodicals in British Universities was originated by the Universities' "Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation," in 1925.

After obtaining the support of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, which provided funds for the salary and expenses of the cataloguer and guaranteed the Committee against financial loss on publication, and sending a circular to the Universities, which all approved of the scheme, the Joint Standing Committee appointed a cataloguer in 1928 and established a centre for the work at the National Central Library. The cataloguer then set out on a tour of the universities and in four years visited 58 libraries and made entries for all their periodicals. Most of these entries (about 80 per cent) were obtained by copying catalogues; the remainder by direct cataloguing of the periodicals. Conditions, including the amount of material to be dealt with, naturally varied greatly between the different libraries, and so, although all gave every facility they could, did the amount of help which libraries could give. The cataloguer spent a year at Oxford but only three weeks at Bristol.

The cataloguer moved directly from one library to another, sending in to the centre the batches of entries obtained in each library as they were done. In the meantime, and indeed for some time after the cataloguer returned, 42 libraries, chiefly of small colleges, themselves made copies of their catalogues and sent them directly to the centre. In 1932 the cataloguer returned to

the centre, and since that time has been engaged on editing the material and incorporating notes of corrections, additions, and withdrawals which are from time to time sent by the libraries. The catalogue contains some 50,000 different entries showing the holdings of 100 libraries. Unfortunately, the question of expense precludes publication of all periodicals included in the "World List" and some minor and imperfect sets as well as some bibliographical details. All these will remain in the complete manuscript catalogue at the National Central Library. It is hoped that the remainder, totalling some 35,000 entries for 100 libraries, will be published in 1936.

Having said something on methods of compiling union catalogues, we may now examine their value, to see if the results justify the work and expense involved in making them.

There is, of course, abundant evidence of their value in the fact of the great number in existence and in process of compilation in so many different countries, as well as by the plans which are now being made for others: but the justification of complete union catalogues is sometimes questioned, even by librarians, and so it is worth while to examine their value.

The chief services which a union catalogue does are self-evident. Whether printed catalogues and lists of additions to libraries exist or not, it is by far the best tool for tracing books. Indeed, without a union catalogue it is extremely difficult for a librarian to trace any but a small proportion of books he needs. He can do so only by making direct enquiries, by letter or telephone, to all libraries likely to have them, or by searching through innumerable lists. Either, and any enquiry will usually entail both, is so expensive in time and money, and gives such poor results, that it can only occasionally be done. If published catalogues of many libraries exist, it might be thought that it would be adequate if every librarian obtained all these he could, and traced books by searching through them. But it has been proved that this is not practicable, and in countries where published catalogues are common, as in Germany, Holland and Switzerland, the inadequacy of the method has provided one of the strongest arguments for union catalogues, which have in all these countries been made.

Indeed, such a procedure offers only a very poor and partial solution to the problem. In the first place, published catalogues of *all* books in any group of libraries never exist, and in the second, some libraries can never obtain copies of all which do, and further, there is a great variety in cataloguing rules used among them, and some are inaccurate. But more important still, they run to a great number of alphabetical sequences: after a library has issued its last printed catalogue it will, at most, issue during many years only periodic lists of additions. So that in any country, a librarian who wished to locate a book through published catalogues would probably be faced with the task of consulting at least 300 or 400 alphabetical sequences in order to do so.

Of course, he would not always have to do this without guidance; there might, for instance, be catalogues of libraries specializing in the subject or covering the date of publication of the book, which he would consult first. But such catalogues might not exist, and even if they did, might not help in tracing the book: for although a catalogue of a special library or period is always a good positive guide, it can be a bad negative one. A special library often acquires a book outside its own subject: a list of books added to a library in 1935 will certainly not contain books published in 1936, but it might contain books published in any year before 1936. In consulting a number of catalogues for a book not published recently, there are few which a searcher can ever ignore as being sources which could not possibly contain the required entry; and, if the book is recent, there will exist few catalogues which possibly could contain an entry for it.

A searcher can easily and reasonably put aside as unlikely sources the very catalogues which contain an entry for the book, just as, in making enquiries to libraries, he may ask many before one which contains the book, and even omit asking such a library at all: books are often found in unlikely places. He may come to the right catalogue after fruitless search which may extend to hours, if he has so much time to spend on one enquiry, or he may abandon the search before he reaches it. At all events the process is likely to be slow, and not only is speed

sometimes important in tracing a book, but the librarian will have other things to do.

Published catalogues are, for the purpose under discussion, always at once far too few and far too many. Frequently, recourse is never made to them because the task is so formidable ; with the result that many enquiries which would unhesitatingly be sent to a union catalogue are never pursued if published catalogues are the only tool available : and this, with the time wasted in following up other enquiries through them, makes the compilation of a union catalogue an economy as well as a provision for a fuller and better service.

For the future, it is worth noting that published catalogues are likely to become rarer, because of their expense, and also because they will be rendered less necessary with the growth of union catalogues.

That published catalogues in general only cover a small part of any field, is well known. And not only do such catalogues of libraries, which locate books as well as indicate their existence, show many omissions, but so do published bibliographies, i.e., lists of books in which titles have been gathered from all sources and are included irrespective of whether copies are known to exist in any library. As an instance of this may be cited the experience of the compilers of the *World List of Scientific Periodicals*. In preparing this, an exhaustive search was made in all bibliographical resources available, and as the work was done in London with headquarters at the British Museum, and in one or two other large towns in Great Britain, these resources were as complete as they would have been anywhere for such an undertaking. When all the material was gathered, from library catalogues and bibliographies of all kinds, the compilers believed that they had missed few periodicals in their field—for the catalogue was to be a complete list, to include all titles whether locations could be given or not. They then printed some preliminary copies of the list and sent about 90 to different libraries in Great Britain in order that these should record their holdings. But as a result the compilers received from these libraries notice of between 300-400 fresh periodicals which had apparently not been recorded in any published catalogue or bibliography. It was,

of course, immediately obvious that if they could have sent ~~these~~^{these} lists to the chief libraries in the world, they would have discovered thousands of fresh items. The first edition of the *World List* of 1925 for the period 1900-1921 contained about 25,000 titles. The second edition of 1934 for the period 1900-1933 contains about 10,000 fresh titles, many of which were published before 1921, but of which the existence was not then known to the compilers. About 60 per cent of these were obtained from the manuscript of the Union List of Periodicals in British Universities, 30 per cent supplied by other libraries, and certainly not more than 10 per cent obtained from published lists. It is true that for the second edition the compilers had not the time to make anything like such a thorough search in published lists as they did for the first, but if they had, it is certain that they would have found most of their new material in union catalogues and especially in the Union List of Serials [B. 53] and the G.A.Z. [B. 70].

This is an instructive case of the value of union catalogues in bringing material to light, and of the inadequacy of published library catalogues and of bibliographies.

One of the commonest criticisms of union catalogues is that most of their entries are probably for common books, and that it is a waste of time to record that many of the libraries, and not infrequently all of them, have copies of the same book. Now whatever the probability may seem, it is a proved fact that most of the entries in a union catalogue are actually for books which are unique in that particular group of libraries, and that those for books which are in all or most of the libraries are few. So, for instance, in the Prussian Union Catalogue, the percentage of unique entries was 60. In the Swiss union catalogue made by Barth at Zürich it was 84. In that made by the Swiss Library Association it was 60.3. In the Swiss union list of additions it was 75 for books and 66 for periodicals; in the union catalogue of periodicals in Geneva it was 82; and in that of the British Universities it was 60 and there only 10 per cent of the entries for 100 similar libraries were for more than six copies of the same periodical, and there was considerable variety in the actual holdings of most of these. In the nucleus union catalogue of the British

South-Eastern Regional System an analysis of entries under the letter "A" gave the following results :—

Books in one library only	..	51 %
" " two libraries	..	18.5 %
" " three "	..	10.5 %
" " four "	..	7.5 %
" " five "	..	5.5 %
" " six "	..	3 %
" " seven "	..	3 %
" " eight "	..	1 %

There were only two books in all nine libraries, and the total number of different entries analysed was 2,560. Later, when 51 Public and County Libraries had been incorporated in this catalogue, the figures for the letter "A" were :

Books in 1 library only	..	40.22 %
" " 2 libraries "	..	14.3 %
" " 3 " "	..	9.21 %
" " 4 " "	..	6.33 %
" " 5 " "	..	4.6 %
" " 6 " "	..	3.43 %
" " 7 " "	..	2.8 %
" " 8 " "	..	2.42 %
" " 9 " "	..	2.29 %
" " 10 " "	..	1.65 %
" " 11-20 " "	..	9.82 %
" " 21-30 " "	..	2.34 %
" " 31-40 " "	..	.53 %
" " over 40 "	..	.06 %

This result shows the greatest amount of duplication in the examples given, but is particularly interesting since the libraries are in fairly close proximity to each other, and are all of exactly the same type. There were 4,719 different entries analysed.

In January, 1935, an estimate of the Union Catalogue of the London Metropolitan Borough libraries, based on a count of five trays, gave the total of different entries as 168,822 and the total of unique entries as 78,978 or 46.13 per cent. There are 30 library systems represented, all except one being exactly of the same type.

They have an average of 3-4 branch libraries (there are actually 100 libraries in all) for which duplicate copies of books are frequently bought. They are situated close together and serve the same kind of reader ; and form an excellent example of a

group of libraries among which duplication might be expected to be at its highest.

A union catalogue is thus not only an instrument for showing where books are, it is also a valuable bibliographical tool ; bringing to light copies of books in places which would not be suspected of having them, and even books of which the existence was not generally known. There is, in all probability, hardly a single library, however small, which does not possess at least a few rare books, and many have some which are on subjects in which those libraries do not specialize. Librarians are usually very ready that their possession of these books should be generally known, but there is no way of making it known except by a union catalogue : lists of such books cannot be made and generally circulated, and even if they could, few libraries could make use of them, for to be of any value they would have to be amalgamated into one sequence, i.e., every library would be making a union catalogue of rare books, which would be duplicated in every other library. Furthermore, no librarian always knows whether a book is rare or not, and so such lists could not be effectively made. The fact of a book's scarcity may be only brought out by the compilation of a union catalogue.

In spite of the consistently high percentage of entries in a union catalogue for books unique in the system, and the very low percentage for books of which there are copies in more than half the libraries, it is true that in making a union catalogue some time must be used in recording that many libraries have copies of the same book. It might be thought that this was wasted time : but in fact it is not. The inclusion of "common" books in a union catalogue is of extreme importance, and the whole question of what they are and of their inclusion is interesting.

In the first place, it is perhaps natural to assume that the percentage of entries in a union catalogue for any given book will usually be a direct indication of its general "commonness"—"commonness" in the sense of a book of which many copies exist, and which is easily obtainable anywhere. So it may be thought that an entry for a book which is only in one library will be for an "uncommon" book, one for a book in only two

or three libraries for a less "uncommon" book, and so on, until an entry for a book in most or all of the libraries will be for a very "common" book.

But this may be quite untrue in the general sense of "commonness" and only true in the limited sense of the book in relation to the libraries concerned. An entry for only one or two copies in the scheme may be for a book which can almost anywhere be bought cheaply: it may be for a popular edition of Shakespeare or other classic, a popular text-book, or a pamphlet in print and issued gratis by some society, i.e., it may be for a book which is essentially common in the general sense. On the other hand, an entry for a book in most or even all of the libraries may well be for one which is quite uncommon and perhaps rare. It may be for an early printed book, possibly an incunabulum, or for an expensive book, or one issued privately or in a limited edition. There is no intention to suggest that this will always be the case, but only that the number of copies of any book in a group of libraries is no indication whatever of its general commonness.

That this should be so is fairly obvious, but, and especially for non-librarians, it is likely to be one of those matters only appreciated on a second consideration. Libraries tend to collect rare books, expensive books, books issued in limited editions, and the like. Most books of these kinds eventually find their way into libraries, and once there are rarely alienated. If four incunabula exist in any district, three will probably be in some kind of public library, and as time goes on this proportion increases. Libraries do not tend to anything like a similar extent to collect cheap books, popular editions of standard works, or text-books: readers are expected to buy most of these for themselves. So that although in making a union catalogue time is used in recording that many libraries have copies of the same book, these are often of value or rarity and it is well to record them all.

Even so, it is still true that some entries of this kind are for books common in the general sense; but their inclusion, far from being a waste of time, is time often well spent. A union catalogue is not made for temporary use, but for the future as well as the present. A large proportion of common books are

modern, and a book cheap and easy to get to-day, may be scarce in even a few years' time : just as a book held to be of little use and even worthless, to-day, may in no remote future prove to be of great utility. And, of perhaps more importance than this, a book which is common now, is more often than not of utility now.

Few people object to the cataloguing of books which are rare, and of financial or sentimental value. Much time and money is spent on cataloguing early printed books, chiefly because they have an antiquarian and "scholarly" interest, an interest which is also predominant in librarians ; but also because they have a real value in studies, chiefly in the humanities ; and, because of their rarity, a published record of them is also in itself of value—it is obviously of great utility to a student to have an exact description of a book of which he can only with difficulty see a copy. Because their descriptions must be exact, the work of cataloguing them is very skilled, demanding not a little scholarship, great care, and often much ingenuity in research. It is, therefore, attractive work to the scholar librarian, and one to which he naturally turns. It also has the further attraction of work logically starting at the beginning of a subject, and which in itself offers some possibility of finality, as the cataloguing of modern books cannot do. Finally, it has received tremendous encouragement because these books have a financial value : much cataloguing of the kind, and of a very high order, has been done by booksellers, and much is done by others—librarians and bibliographers—through the interest of collectors, some of whom are primarily attracted to these books because they are valuable curios.

The cataloguing of old books is useful and necessary work, but some of the time spent on it should be spent on cataloguing modern books. For, as librarians have come to realize, old books are only required by the few : the demand for old books in proportion to that for modern ones is small. Incunabula are rightly precious but they are usually taken from their shelves only for purposes of exhibition, or to be catalogued, or repaired. As noted in the Introduction, the general demand for books can be roughly divided into two parts, of which the first is for

modern books, we may say, books published within two or three years of the date of the enquiry, and the second for books published earlier. It was noted that these ratios vary where habits of reading vary, but in general are about half and half. In Germany, the demand, at any rate through the exchange lending system, is chiefly for older books—in 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933 respectively, 53 per cent, 55 per cent, 54 per cent, 49 per cent of the enquiries to the Berlin Bureau were for books published before 1900. In Holland and Great Britain the demand for modern books is probably higher: and this variation is also seen as between different types of libraries. In Great Britain the chief demand to centres from the Public Libraries, and even more from the County Libraries, is for modern English books, but from the Universities it is chiefly for older and foreign books. The demand for modern books can, of course, be further subdivided; in general, the more recent the period the greater is the demand for books published in it.

So that the librarian's chief problem in book supply is to provide books of recent date: and, as no librarian can buy more than a small part of these, and but few duplicate copies even of those in greatest demand, his problem is to get what are at the time "common" books, in the sense that for the most part many copies of each exist, and they may be readily purchased by those who can afford them. He must borrow most of these, and he therefore needs access to a source of information which can tell him from where they may be borrowed.

Now union catalogues are never likely to be of much help to improve the supply of very modern books, published within a year or so of an application; the catalogues cannot, and, as noted, perhaps should not, be compiled speedily enough; and even if they could, most of these books would not be available for loan, since they would be in demand, or under the likelihood of demand, by readers in the libraries which possess them, and therefore come into the category of books not to be lent. But some entries for them will be received, and the proportion will increase as time goes on; and some may legitimately be lent, so that union catalogues will make for a slight improvement even in the supply of these books. For the remaining

demands, for modern books published within five or six years to one year from the date of the application, and for all older books, the union catalogue will be a most valuable tool. These will form by far the major portion of the total demand for books, and many of them will be for common books.

It is, of course, obvious that a book usually becomes rare because it has not been wanted. One which is generally wanted is printed in large editions, and reprinted, and many copies are preserved. Common books are those which are in greatest demand. This is not invariably the case, there are probably notable exceptions on both sides, but the exceptions tend to become eliminated in course of time. Reprints are made of scarce books which are in demand, and so, as far as reprints can replace original editions, they cease to be rare. Books printed in large editions but which go out of demand, are gradually discarded by libraries and become rare: some of them may become popular again, in which case libraries re-collect them, and, it may be, they are reprinted. Thus, in general, if a union catalogue of 20 libraries shows that each has one or more copies of a book, that supply has some relation to the demand, and the ratio of supply and demand is likely to remain roughly balanced down to the book of which there is only one copy among the libraries. If this is not so, a union catalogue is the only way by which a lack of correspondence between supply and demand can be properly checked and put right. It is for these reasons that it is a proper and useful function of a union catalogue to record common books. There is likely to be as much excess demand for a book of which there are 20 copies among 20 libraries as there is for one of which there is only a single copy. Furthermore, it is impossible to say that any library is bound to contain a copy of every common book. This is the general experience of all who have worked at centres of library co-operation, and who have had to make use of special enquiries to libraries to trace books, and the fact that very few books indeed are common to all libraries in any group is proved by the analysis of entries in union catalogues given above, which shows that entries for unique copies are consistently high, and entries for copies of the same book in all the libraries, consistently low.

These points provide strong arguments against the compilation of selective union catalogues.

The nature and uses of entries in a union catalogue may be briefly summarized as follows :—

1. An entry for only one copy of a book among several libraries is not necessarily for a rare or even valuable book. It may well be for one of little utility or for a cheap book in print.

2. Such an entry will usually be for a book in small demand. If this is not so the need for more copies is made evident.

3. An entry for many copies of a book will often be for one which is valuable or rare, of which all copies should be recorded.

4. If this is not so, if the book is common or cheap, it is very probably also of great utility, and in constant demand, and so the existence of every copy is well worth recording.

5. If such a book is neither rare nor valuable, nor of utility and not in demand, the entries form a useful guide for discarding.

It must be remembered that union cataloguing is confined to serious books. It does not include fiction and should not include other ephemeral and popular literature of the fiction type. A union catalogue assists libraries both to acquire and discard judiciously. Most libraries would gladly get rid of perhaps a tenth of their books, but they do not know which tenth, and never can until a union catalogue including their stock is made. They can rarely know whether a book is available elsewhere, without a union catalogue. They therefore often acquire and keep books unnecessarily ; and, less frequently, refuse others which they should accept. A union catalogue is a guide to minimize such errors.

The Introduction to the American Union List of Serials [B. 53] contains the following paragraph :—

“ Uses. The primary purpose of the list is to locate serials for reference use. It should, however, be of value as a buying guide in the library’s special field, and as an aid to the completion of useful sets. It raises the question as to the desirability of purchasing sets of secondary importance, since if they are readily available, duplication may be unwise. It indicates to the dealer in serial publications his market. The biographical

information is particularly useful to cataloguers. As an exchange list it should be used to clear shelves of partial and unused sets, in exchange for needed volumes or titles." [See also B. 50, p. 134.]

For these and other reasons it is clear that money spent on a union catalogue is not an outlay from which there arises no ultimate financial economy but only a better library service. It is a valuable bibliographical tool which assists librarians in their work, not only in tracing books but in cataloguing and answering bibliographical enquiries, and as such, expenditure on it is justified. But in addition it will promote definite economy by this guide to discarding and prevention of the unnecessary acquisition of books both by purchase and the acceptance of gifts. For, as mentioned above in the discussion of the cost of inter-library loans, every book kept in or added to a library is a standing expense, in "processing" and maintenance. Storage room alone is a heavy cost. A library may maintain, or even build and equip an extra room or building, and all the time be in a position to discard or transfer to another library a sufficient quantity of books to make this extra room unnecessary. It is not claimed that the completion of a union catalogue will immediately enable all libraries to discard unnecessary books and to acquire only those which are necessary; but in the course of time it will greatly increase the possibility of these things. The tendency has been for libraries to acquire all they can, so that many now house large numbers of books which are no use to them, and are not worth preserving in so many copies, for the public in general: and libraries waste much room, time and money in housing, maintaining and recording these books. Already librarians are conscious of this waste and there is a tendency to restrict the size of reference libraries to books of active value, and free the staff for more vital work than maintaining and recording useless stock. The development of union catalogues will check this unnecessary growth in the size of libraries' stocks generally: the few exceptions will be libraries at the centre of schemes of co-operation, of which the stocks will increase. But to say that stocks will not increase at the present rate, and even that in some cases they may decrease, is not to say that libraries will not increase in size and activity.

The number of books it possesses should not be the sole criterion of a library's greatness : that should also be judged by the usefulness and extent of its service ; a matter which by no means entirely depends on size either of stock or staff, but rather on quality, and especially of the latter. And by restricting the size of reference libraries, forming central pools, and setting up and using machinery for borrowing, libraries will get rid of useless work and expense and be of greater value to the public. The money spent on union catalogues will both save money in the future and will also bear interest [B. 173, p. 17].

Arguments against a selective union catalogue have already been given. All who favour such a catalogue agree that it is a less valuable tool than a complete one ; and also that it is difficult both to arrive at a satisfactory principle of selection and to put any such principle into practice. Probably the kind of selective catalogue easiest to make is one in which the selection is left to the public, and which is a record of books requested by and traced for readers. The union catalogue of outlier libraries at the British National Central Library is partly made up in this way. Many libraries contribute entries to it, but also, whenever a book is traced from the Central Library by enquiry, an entry is made at the Central Library and inserted in the catalogue. That this is of great utility is due to the fact that the libraries which contribute are mostly special libraries and the entries made at the National Central Library are likely to be for books in demand which are also scarce, since they could not be supplied at the reader's library, or, if common, are in such great demand that the reader's library could not possess enough copies of them. As would be expected, enquiries for many of these books come in again, and some come time after time. The obvious shortcomings of such a catalogue are that, as far as the selected entries are concerned, it can only contain books previously traced : so that it grows slowly and is useless for enquiries which have not only been received but also successfully dealt with before. It contains only one location for each of many of the entries, so that one library may be called on frequently to supply the same book. For all this, this method is simple and gives reasonably good results, but is only to be recommended if the

compilation of a complete union catalogue is impossible. A similar catalogue, a record of enquiries received, is found in most centres for inter-lending.

The question of selective as against general union catalogues does, of course, demand more consideration. In the first place the term "general union catalogue" is inexact since none actually is general, all are to some extent selective. All omit modern fiction and ephemeral literature, and many, as the Prussian Union Catalogue, exclude other matter. Perhaps the only way in which active selection can be carried out by the compilers, is to catalogue special collections in other libraries. It is on this plan that the union catalogue at the Library of Congress, Washington, U.S.A. has been compiled—the "Project B" which was finished in 1932 (Report of Librarian of Congress, 1932. pp. 74-8. Further references in B. 8, 58, 65).

The English regional system plan is to make "complete" union catalogues in regional areas and send copies to the National Central Library. A scheme on the lines of that followed by the Library of Congress would be for the work to be done at the National Central Library with the co-operation of librarians. In outline it would be that the National Central Library should first of all draw up a list of special collections. It should then set about making a union catalogue of these by the best means. This might include cutting up printed catalogues but would largely depend on the co-operation of librarians, who would be asked to contribute entries of unusual books and especially of new additions. Librarians are likely to respond excellently (as they did in the U.S.A.) to such a request from a national centre.

If the centre is able to print these entries or multiply them by any process, copies of the whole or parts of the union catalogue could be set up in various parts of the country. Such a scheme naturally supposes a strong national centre such as the Library of Congress. It would at present not be possible, even if considered advisable, with the British National Central Library, since that, although developing rapidly, is still a young institution with barely sufficient funds and staff to cope with the work already on its hands.

As co-operation develops and union catalogues grow, the

central library will in no way supersede other libraries ; but on the contrary will strengthen them, and library service everywhere. It will be a subsidiary strength to other libraries, and in enabling them to offer a better service in books and information will attract the public generally to a more extensive use of libraries.

Union catalogues are also necessary for the proper working of international co-operation. No country can co-operate satisfactorily with another unless it has full information on its own resources. If it does not have this it will often report, in answer to enquiries from abroad, that books cannot be supplied which are, in fact, available ; and it will often unnecessarily apply abroad for books actually available at home. And this full information can only be obtained from one union catalogue, or a system of them, covering all libraries in the country.

It is hoped that the foregoing remarks are sufficient to prove that union catalogues are a practicable necessity, that they are required, they can be made, and the service they give more than justifies the cost and labour expended on them. Objections to any union catalogue seem always to arise only because the catalogue is being compiled by a faulty system. The chapter may well be closed with a warning about the possible effect of their growth. It is made without stress, since the danger has nowhere shown serious signs of materializing ; but it is worth considering as a possibility which, if it developed, would have serious results.

It is essential that a centre shall be manned by an active and unfettered staff. Now a union catalogue is a machine, and a machine of a peculiar kind : it not only demands constant attention, but is constantly altering and growing. The income for working and developing it is rarely likely to increase as the task of doing these things increases ; and when the catalogue becomes large, this task also becomes large. So that where a centre has a large and growing catalogue and a small staff, this staff may have its activities limited to looking after the catalogue—the workers may become enslaved by their machine. The dangers of rationalization are generally understood, and librarians properly appreciate the power they have to combat them: “ The machine-

minder of the future must be trained enough, educated enough, to withstand the degradation of machine-minding. Public libraries can play an important part in that work,"¹ but machine-minding may enter into librarianship, and not last in this matter of working and developing union catalogues.

Such a state would be full of dangers. In it, the machine would be all-important and the human element repressed. There would be compulsory reliance on the machine, and the staff would do no more with applications than look them up in the catalogue and report on their finding. If the book was found, well and good; if not, the "decision" of the machine would be taken as final and the book reported unobtainable. Now the significance of this must be faced. On the one hand, whether we like rationalization or not, we may say that it is necessary, that these union catalogues are necessary and that since we must rationalize we had better set about it wholeheartedly: the business of tracing books must be mechanized and those engaged in the central part of the work must do mechanical work. If, as a result, they become "degraded by machine-minding" and themselves mechanical in their work and spirit, that may be regrettable, but will be a regrettable necessity.

This is, conceivably, a legitimate theoretical view in anyone who is not a librarian. But no one will hold it who has had to do with work at any kind of information bureau; for this, and in particular, the work of answering enquiries for books, can only be well done when the staff has time to take an active interest in every application received. If a staff can spare no more time from attentions to a union catalogue, than to look up in that each application, in the form it is received, and to report its finding, the results are likely to be so bad that it is doubtful if the existence of such a centre and catalogue will be justified. It will not be able to deal at all with a large number of enquiries which should legitimately be sent to a centre—those for books giving information on a subject, those for bibliographical information, and those for books of which the descriptions can be only imperfectly given. It is in answering these, or assisting a local librarian to answer them, that a centre does a service of great importance.

¹ *Library Assistant*, 1934. Vol. 27, No. 4, p. 90.

in any other country : the next largest is the Prussian catalogue at Berlin, where, although there was no abundance of money there was a very thorough existing organization. In many other countries union catalogues have been limited in size by splitting them either by subject matter or between groups of libraries : so in Italy there are two main catalogues, both of additions to the State libraries, but one of Italian books and the other of foreign ; and a union catalogue of foreign periodicals in the libraries of Italian scientific institutes has been separately issued : in Holland there is one catalogue at the Hague of books in academic libraries, and another at Delft of the contents of technical libraries : in Switzerland there are regional catalogues, as that in Geneva of the Genevese libraries, and that in Zürich of the cantonal libraries, as well as the national union catalogue at Berne : in Great Britain there are union catalogues of the outlier libraries of the National Central Library, of the periodicals in the Universities, and of scientific and technical periodicals in all kinds of libraries : but in addition an attempt is being made to compile a general union catalogue by making separate union catalogues of the libraries in 12 areas together covering the country. Copies of the catalogues for the English regions will be amalgamated at the National Central Library and so a national catalogue will be achieved, but much of the work of compiling and maintaining it will be spread over eight centres. The catalogue could not be compiled and maintained by the National Central Library alone.

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PART II

SYSTEMS OF LIBRARY CO-OPERATION IN EUROPE

INTRODUCTION

The arrangement of Part II: and some of the chief differences between British and Continental library services.

The following chapters, 5-10, describe the chief national lending systems and library information bureaux in Europe: Chapter 11 gives some account of international societies concerned with the work, and of international co-operation.

Although the lending of books from one library to another is not new, no attempt to establish a national system of such lending and to set up a central bureau through which books could be traced was made until the end of the last century, when a movement to achieve these objects was begun in Prussia. That has now spread to embrace the whole of Germany, which to-day has the best national system of exchange lending and the most efficient library information bureau in the world. During the present century other countries have followed suit, so that now most European countries either have such a system and such a bureau or else are engaged in forming them. Of recent years the League of Nations, through the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation; and the International Federation of Library Associations, have done not a little to stimulate the formation of these bureaux in various countries, but a far greater stimulus has been this pioneer work of Prussia, on the results of which all other countries have in some way or another modelled their schemes. Therefore in the following treatment of the history and present position of the work in Europe, prominence has been given to an account of what has been done in Germany. This comes first: the other countries are dealt with roughly in the order in which they took up the work; but this chronology is difficult to determine and is always sacrificed to convenience in grouping together neighbouring countries, or those which have adopted similar systems.

Properly to understand these movements, it is, of course, necessary to have some knowledge of the general library service in each country. Some particulars of it which may affect co-operation are given at the beginning of the section on each country; but at best these are no more than bare outlines, and it is hoped that the reader will, if necessary, supplement them from other sources. He is particularly recommended to refer to B. 8, 12, 21, 23, 24, 29, 30, 31, 34, 36, of which extensive use has been made in the following chapters.

To save repetition, and for the benefit especially of English readers, it is convenient to summarize here some points in which Continental library systems differ from British. In Great Britain Public Libraries are both numerous and strong, and form a class which even for the supply of non-fiction books is almost equal in importance, in the British library world, to that formed by the academic libraries. There is no central control of any group of libraries, and only one public general library, the British Museum, is entirely state supported. There is only one association of librarians, of which the members come from all types of library.

In nearly all other countries the library system is centred almost entirely on the academic libraries, which are often old foundations: Public Libraries in the British sense are not strong, and where they exist, are new. Relative exceptions to this are found in Scandinavia and in some other countries such as Belgium, Holland and Switzerland, but even in these the Public Library service is largely of a popular nature, mainly concerned with supplying fiction, and far more distinct in kind from the service of the academic libraries than is the case in Great Britain; that Public Library service which is not of a popular kind is far more closely interwoven with the academic service than it is in Britain; there, the Public Libraries cater extensively for serious readers, and so do the universities, but the two services are quite distinct; whereas on the Continent it is common to find a municipal or public town library amalgamated with a university library and actually having the title "Public and University Library." Moreover, there are usually two library associations in each country, one for Public (popular) libraries and one for academic (learned, or in the Continental sense, "scientific") libraries. The

most important of these latter are, in all countries, except Britain, commonly financed and therefore to some extent, controlled, by the State : and practically all of them, the great national libraries included, lend books to other libraries and sometimes to individuals in all parts of the country. Printed catalogues and printed lists of additions are far commoner than they are in Britain. Special libraries, of course, exist, sometimes maintained by the State, and sometimes by societies, and are of much the same kind as those found in Britain.

In contrast to the British Museum, all Continental national libraries lend and are closely connected with the library service of their country. There is migration of staff between the national and other state—especially university—libraries : in Germany there is a regular interchange in this way. Some Continental national libraries also collaborate with the book trade—as is not done in Great Britain—in producing current national bibliographies (see, e.g., 197, 277, 308).

For these reasons, schemes of co-operation outside Britain have usually been confined to the older libraries, the state, university and college, and the ancient town libraries which are of an “academic” type, and the special libraries, since all these are the backbone of the library systems. The Public, popular, libraries have not usually been included since they are of comparatively little importance in number and size and for the supply of non-fiction books. Of the partial exceptions noted, the most important are the Scandinavian countries, and particularly Denmark.

No European library or centre (Great Britain included) makes a charge for lending other than the cost of postage, most supply ordinary bibliographical information free or for a nominal charge to libraries within their country, and all supply it free to foreign centres and libraries. If the information entails much work, as the preparation of a long list of books, it is, if supplied at all, usually done at cost price, as, or at very small profit, are rotograph or other reproductions of documents.

The chief difficulties of terminology lie in the words “public” and “scientific.” When referring simply to any kind of library which is open to the public as distinguished from one which is private or only for the use of members of a society, endeavour

is made always to print "public library" with small initials. When referring to that type of library known in Great Britain as the Public Library, endeavour is made always to use capital initials. But as Public Libraries exactly corresponding to the British are not common on the Continent, the term "popular" is generally used for those public libraries which deal only or chiefly in fiction, and "town" for those municipal public libraries which deal with fiction and serious literature, and sometimes only with the latter. It is difficult to find a term for "non-fiction" libraries or one to distinguish other libraries from Public Libraries. This difficulty is very apparent in dealing with Great Britain. The terms "learned," "research" and "academic" are variously used, the latter being restricted, as far as possible, to university and college libraries. But the term which is in fairly general use on the Continent, and especially in Teutonic and Scandinavian countries is the equivalent of "scientific" which has sometimes been used here. When it seemed likely that it might be interpreted in its usual and restricted English sense, as referring only to the sciences and not including the humanities, it has been placed in parentheses to indicate that it is used in the Continental sense of "learned" in general, as opposed to "popular." When the equivalent of the word "public" is used of a library in a Continental language, it usually means "State" or at least a "learned" library, rarely a "popular" library dealing in fiction.

As far as organization is concerned it may be worth noting that on the whole there is much less "open-access" in Continental than in British libraries, and as a result (or cause and effect may be reversed) subject and classified catalogues are commoner on the Continent than in Britain. Continental author catalogues are often divided into two sequences, one of books with personal authors and the other of "anonyma" which includes all anonymous matter, anonymous books (i.e., books by personal authors whose names are not known), publications of societies, etc., and periodicals. Entries are usually on large size slips (cm. 15-20 x 10-12) rather than on cards of international size (although the use of these is increasing), but are kept in cabinets as cards. Classification schemes are usually home-made.

CHAPTER V

GERMANY

[B. pp. 340-42]

The Library System [B. 35, 72, 100, 102-106, 110, 117]. German libraries have always catered chiefly for the scholar, the student of the academic type; and until the present century little has been done to provide fiction and other popular literature for the general public, and, apart from private enterprise and the activities of societies, comparatively little to meet the needs of the industrialist, the "technical" worker. During the present century there has been some development in the first field, and a very considerable one in the second through municipal and special libraries: even before the war the municipal libraries in large cities such as Berlin and in industrial areas as the Ruhr country, Westphalia, and the mining districts of Upper Silesia were making good provision for the study of industrial and technical matters. These municipal and special libraries have mainly provided for serious readers and not for popular tastes in literature: that need has to some extent been met by the various forms of popular libraries (Volksbüchereien) which include travelling libraries; and this section of German library activity is a development of recent years.

Thus the German library system can be roughly divided into three parts: (1) the new popular libraries, which, although developing are not yet strong; (2) the special—commercial and technical—libraries with which may be included the municipal and the new "student" libraries; (3) the older academic libraries, which are still the most important libraries in the country, and still form the backbone of the German library system.

The national scheme of co-operation began among the libraries in group 3, and although it is now extended to include many in group 2, it is still based, in body and spirit, on the older academic libraries.

The chief of these consist of the central library in each state or province, the Staats- or Landes- bibliothek, and the numerous University libraries. These are nearly all state libraries, they are financed by the governments of the States or provinces to which they belong, and therefore, although they have considerable freedom in internal administration, are ultimately under state control. Their books are usually kept in closed access, although the shelves of most university libraries are open to the teachers, but there are author and subject indexes which are thorough, if often antiquated in method. They are strong in old books, and are indeed well stocked generally. Fiction, apart from "literature" is usually not represented. They all lend, not only to their own readers, but also to libraries and even individuals in other parts of Germany; and this, more or less, they have always done.

It is less than a hundred years ago that Germany became a united country, even for political purposes, and (at least until very recent times) the various States have remained jealous of their own characteristics and traditions. One result of this is that Germany has no single national library on a parallel with the British Museum, the French Bibliothèque Nationale, or the American Library of Congress; for the Deutsche Bücherei opened at Leipzig in 1917 is a national copyright reference library for German literature only, and chiefly for such literature which has been published since 1913: but the development of the inter-lending system has brought the State Library in Berlin, which is about half the size of the British Museum, more or less into the position of a national library corresponding to those mentioned (see also p. 170). However, this is not to say that Germany's library resources are less than those of the other chief countries of the world. They are, in fact, probably greater than those of any other single country, with the possible exception of the U.S.A., but they are scattered throughout the land in libraries small and large.

As one result of the several German States has been that—at least until recently—no library could be called the national library, so a second and very important result has been that most German libraries specialize. Where they serve a general community

they naturally form general collections, but in addition most of them specialize in particular subjects over and above local affairs. The existence of the States sometimes made co-operation difficult, but yet it seems to be the explanation of the lending, and of the whole spirit of co-operation between German libraries. It explains why a great number of medium sized state libraries has to serve one national community : a task which forced these libraries to co-operate with each other by lending. This in itself encouraged specialization. It explains why the business of book production is not centralized in Germany, as it so largely is in England and in France, for example : and this again, with the variations of the " legal deposit " laws between the different states, offers yet another reason why German libraries are to a larger extent than most, specialist libraries. And specialization, whether it arose in this more or less incidental way or not, is now a part of the policy of most German States with regard to their libraries, as being at once economical and desirable ; and the extent to which it has become a characteristic feature of German libraries may be indicated by the fact that when the Union Catalogue of the eleven Prussian state libraries was compiled it was found that for 60 per cent of the books there indexed only one copy was possessed among them all. Other investigations have shown that libraries in other parts of Germany possess many standard, and even " Prussian " books which are not found in any of these great Prussian libraries. It has been found, for instance, that 25 per cent of the works of a typically Prussian scholar, E. M. Arndt, are found only in libraries outside Prussia. A comparison of the entries under *Augustine* in the Prussian union catalogue and the catalogues of 20 non-Prussian libraries showed that these possessed 100 per cent more than the Prussian libraries. Other comparisons of entries in the union catalogue with those of the catalogues of such libraries as the University of Leipzig, the old royal library of Hanover and the State Library at Munich, showed that these possessed over 30 per cent more fresh titles not to be found in the union catalogue.

These facts about the German library system, the nature and importance of the state libraries, the existence of state control, the absence of a single national library, the tradition of lending

and general co-operation, the characteristic of specialization, are the most important points to be borne in mind in considering the work described in the following sections.

Co-operation. The movement which has now so far developed that a student living anywhere in Germany may obtain quickly almost any book from any German library, consists of three main features. The first is the national system of exchange lending between libraries, the *Leihverkehr*; the second is the union catalogue of the Prussian state libraries, the *Preussische Gesamtkatalog*, with its supplement, the *Ergänzungskatalog*, of books found in other libraries, and the more recent national union catalogue of additions to the chief libraries in Germany; and the third is the library information bureau, the *Auskunfts-bureau*, at the State Library in Berlin.

In the following discussion the above matters are referred to as the Lending System, the (Prussian) Supplementary, and the (National) Union Catalogue, and the Bureau, respectively. When these terms are used with any other reference they are qualified to indicate it. For the most part the names of libraries are given by English translations of their present titles; for example, the *Preussische Staatsbibliothek* is referred to throughout as the Prussian State Library, or simply as the State Library, where the full meaning is clear, and never as the Royal Library (*Königliche Bibliothek*) although this latter was its official title until 1918.

The Lending System before the foundation of the Bureau. As has been said, unorganized lending seems to have existed between German libraries from early times; but there was an organized system of exchange lending between the archducal library in Darmstadt (now the *Hessische Landesbibliothek*) and the University library in Giessen in 1837, and there may have been other systems of an even earlier date. However, the beginnings of the present Lending System more properly date from 1892, when an agreement was made between the universities of Göttingen and Marburg whereby books were lent from one university library to another. Under this arrangement consignments of books were despatched on loan from each library to the other once each week; and every borrower paid a fee of 20 pf. (2d.) for each volume so borrowed. In 1895 two similar arrangements

were made, the first between the university libraries of Bonn and Münster, and the other between those of Königsberg and Braunsberg: in this latter case the borrower's fee was reduced to 10 pf. On January 27th of the same year a Prussian Ministerial edict caused the system established between Göttingen and Marburg to be extended to include all the eight other Prussian university libraries (Breslau, Halle, Bonn, Münster, Kiel, Greifswald, Königsberg, Berlin) as well as the State Library in Berlin. As time went on other libraries were admitted to this Prussian "ring," as the state (now municipal) library at Wiesbaden in 1895, and the libraries of the higher state academies and institutions in Prussia in 1897. In that same year the librarians of the State Library and of the state university libraries were given discretionary power to admit the more important *non-state* higher academies and institutions into the system. Inter-lending was very active, even outside the original 11 Prussian libraries—in 1896 Strasbourg University lent 5,247 books to other libraries [B. 37 :—I. 219]. In 1902 the borrower's fee was fixed at a uniform rate of 10 pf., and by this year all the state libraries in Prussia were members of the exchange lending "ring," and the Prussian Lending System was firmly established.

So far the system of exchange lending is only in force in Prussia where it had begun in 1892 and was fully established by 1902; but within 10 years of this latter date most of the other German States had followed the example set by Prussia, and instituted systems of exchange lending within their own borders, Würtemberg in 1902, Baden in 1905 and Bavaria in 1908. The chief points about the various regulations, which were all modelled on the Prussian, were that only state libraries were admitted to these systems, and that all participating libraries must accept the principle of reciprocity as an obligation. It was laid down that the costs of borrowing must be borne by the borrowing library, and not be passed on to the individual for whom the book had been obtained: he must pay only the fee of 10 pf. per volume for a printed book, and 1 RM. for a manuscript. The time limit of borrowing was 6 weeks (now 1 month) for books and 3 months for MSS., inclusive of sending and returning.

In these early years there was no union catalogue or enquiry

bureau in any State, and a library requiring a book was left to its own resources to find it. This it might do from the few printed catalogues that existed of some libraries, but usually it had to send out enquiries to the other libraries in its system; arrangements were sometimes made for these to be circulated from one library to another until the book was found. So that for a book not to be found in any Prussian state library, for example, such a request would ultimately travel right round the Prussian "ring."

The Prussian Union Catalogue. From the beginning of the lending system in Prussia, librarians had foreseen that the system could not work smoothly or efficiently until a union catalogue had been compiled and an enquiry bureau established. Whatever care was exercised in the sending out and transmission of enquiries they were liable to be temporarily mislaid or even lost altogether. Sometimes a circular enquiry found its book in one of the last libraries in its course, and for these reasons it often happened that a book only reached an enquirer after such delay that it was no longer of any use to him. By contrast, for a book needed urgently, a librarian might send out four or five enquiries directly to different libraries, with the possible result that four or five copies of the book might be received by return where only one was wanted. In addition the labour of dealing with enquiries, especially in small libraries, was very great. The idea of union cataloguing was no new thing in Germany—in 1798 Goethe had proposed a scheme for a union catalogue of the libraries of Weimar—and the proposals which ultimately led to the formation of the Prussian Union Catalogue were put forward by the historian Heinrich von Treitschke in 1884¹: these were altered and emended by others, and if the authorship of the scheme finally adopted can be rightly credited to any one man, that must unquestionably be Fritz Milkau. The original idea was to compile a union catalogue of the chief libraries in all Germany, but this had to be modified, and ultimately the scheme was confined to Prussia. By 1895 it was determined that a Union Catalogue should be compiled of the Prussian State Library and of the ten state university libraries mentioned above,

¹ *Preussische Jahrbücher*. 53. 1884. pp. 473-92.

a joint determination of the librarians of these several libraries. The recent universities of Cologne and Frankfurt (founded since the war) have not been included since they are not state property ; and neither do these libraries contribute to the Title-Lists. The idea was taken up by the Prussian Ministry of Education (and especially furthered by the Minister Friedrich Althoff) which gave orders in 1895 that such a catalogue should be compiled and housed in the State Library in Berlin. A committee of Librarians was formed in 1897, with headquarters at the State Library, to organize the work, which was immediately put in hand. This committee was dissolved in November, 1907, and the control of the catalogue transferred to the Council for Library Service. It should be noted that it was the intention from the first that the Union Catalogue should be ultimately printed in book form, and therefore it was compiled as a semi-bibliographical catalogue, not a finding-list. As a first step the committee drew up a code of standard rules for cataloguing based on that used in the State Library. This was issued to the libraries concerned, which had not only to accept it for future use, but also to alter the whole of their existing catalogues to conform to it : a not inconsiderable task, yet one which, undertaken immediately, was completed by 1902. The cataloguing rules, *Instruktionen für die alphabetischen Kataloge der Preussischen Bibliotheken*, were issued in print on May 10th, 1899, and in a second, revised edition on August 10th, 1908. It was decided that the catalogue should be an alphabetical author catalogue only, although there has always been a strong body of opinion for making it a classified catalogue, and that it should exclude MSS., Maps and Plans, texts of music, oriental books, academic theses and other university and school publications, and "minor" literature, since, with the exception of "minor" literature, most of these had been, or were being, collected in special catalogues, some of which were in print. "Minor" literature is now being brought into the catalogue as that is printed. Apart from these it was to contain a notice of every printed book to be found in these libraries which had been published before 1898. Entries for books which had been published in and after 1898 were being brought into the Union Catalogue under another

arrangement. The catalogue was to be compiled on cards of cm. 16 × 11 size.

On June 23rd, 1902, the State Library began to make duplicate entries on slips of the main entries for all books in its author catalogue, other than those to be excluded from the Union Catalogue as stated above: and on January 2nd, 1903, it sent out the first batch of these, consisting of entries for the first part of the letter "A" to the University library at Breslau. Each batch consisted of from 150-250 entries: the comparison of this amount being considered to be about a day's work for one person: about 300 batches were issued each year, 4,242 altogether. Breslau had then to compare its own catalogue with these entries, and to underline its number—a series of numbers, one for each library, was printed on the left side of each entry—on those slips bearing entries for books which were also in its library. It had in addition to insert in each batch entries for those items in its own library which were not recorded as being in the State Library. Finally it sent each batch, now swollen with its own additions, on to the next university library in the "chain" where they were dealt with in the same way. And so the work went on until the duplicate of the complete catalogue of the State Library had been the round of all the Prussian universities. The last batch of slips was received at the State Library from Berlin University in 1922. This procedure meant that as the batches progressed they became much larger and libraries had more material to handle: but this was trifling additional labour since, in checking, every library naturally worked from its own catalogue to the batch received, and did not have to examine all the entries received. It actually meant that the later libraries were given far less work to do than the earlier ones, for they had a smaller proportion of new entries to copy than had those; their work consisted largely of underlining their particular number. The work of comparing and of making new entries was, of course, immensely simplified by the fact that before the circulation began all the universities had been compelled to revise their respective catalogues according to the "Preussische Instruktionen" cataloguing code. It took six years to make the copy of the State Library's catalogue which was circulated. Started on

June 23rd, 1902, the work was finished on June 12th, 1908, when 907,095 cards had been copied. A reservation is to be made to the statement that the copy of the complete catalogue of the State Library had finished the circuit in 1922, for certain sections of that catalogue were held back and issued specially. These consisted of sections for authors under which there was an abnormal number of entries; 221 of these special issues were made altogether, and the last, for "Luther," has not yet completed the round: it is now at Greifswald and has two more libraries to visit before it returns to Berlin.

The Berliner Titeldrucke [B. pp. 35, 91, 98, 114]. It was said above that entries for books published in and after 1898 were brought into the union catalogue by a special arrangement. This arrangement consisted of the use of a union catalogue of additions to the libraries concerned, which is known under the above title. In 1892 the State Library had begun to issue periodically printed lists of its own additions, and before the end of the year the lists were extended to include the additions to Berlin University Library: for that year the lists contained altogether 6,466 titles. In October, 1897, the ten Prussian university libraries were requested by the Government to send to the State Library a notice of all their acquisitions of books published since the beginning of 1898; these were incorporated in the title-lists issued by the State Library so that from 1898 these lists form a union catalogue of additions to the eleven chief Prussian state libraries of books published in and after that year. For 1898 the lists contained 12,589 titles. Until 1909 the lists were called "*Verzeichnis der aus der neu erschienenen Literatur erworben Druckschriften*" but in that year the name was changed to "*Titeldrucke*." Until January 1st, 1928, a library which acquired a book published before 1898 had to send notice of it to the State Library to be incorporated in the Union Catalogue in the ordinary way; but since that date all additions, whenever published, appear in the Title-lists which are now issued once or twice each week. Various early attempts, especially in 1897, 1905 and 1906, were made to bring other libraries into the Title-lists, but without success until the beginning of 1928 when they were extended to include the additions to the Technical "High-

schools" of Aachen, Berlin, Breslau and Hannover, and in that year contained 64,000 titles. In 1932 the Academie of Braunsberg joined; in 1931 the National Library of Vienna, and in 1932 eight Austrian university and other academic libraries. In 1933 the Technical "Highschool" of Dantzic joined, and on September 1st, 1934, the State Library at Munich. The inclusion of these libraries brought a valuable addition to the lists of books on subjects scantily represented there. These Title-lists therefore automatically continue the Union Catalogue from 1898, and the printing of them made the actual compilation of entries for that catalogue an easy matter, for the lists are printed on one side only, and so one copy was cut up at the State Library, each item pasted on a card and the cards sorted in. This soon became even simpler, as, from the type set up for the Title-lists, entries were also printed directly on cards especially for the Union Catalogue. Since 1909 these entries have also been printed on cards of international size as an attempt at central cataloguing, but so far this has not met with great success, largely because the Prussian cataloguing rules are not generally accepted outside Prussia, and also because the catalogues of many libraries are on cards or slips of larger size.

In this way the Prussian Union Catalogue, originally of the eleven chief Prussian state libraries, has been compiled, extended, and kept up to date until December 31st, 1929. At that date the catalogue was closed; with the exception that if one of the participating libraries acquired a book after that time and before the section of the Union Catalogue in which this book appears was printed, provided that this book was already noticed in the Union Catalogue as being in *another* library, then it was also noticed in the catalogue as being in this library. Preparations for printing began in 1911, but the work was stopped in 1914, and could not be taken up again until 1925. Much of the preliminary checking had, however, been done in the meantime, so that editing for the press was started in 1926 and the actual printing on April 1st, 1930. The first volume was published in 1931 and so far seven volumes, reaching the name ATKYNSON, have appeared. The Rockefeller Foundation has made a grant for the work and it is hoped that progress will continue at the

rate of at least two volumes a year. It will contain the complete contents—of books published before the end of 1929, with the exceptions noted—of the following libraries at the time of printing the catalogue (the numbers are the key-numbers of each library in the *Leihverkehr*): (1) The Prussian State Library, Berlin; (2) The University Library (Staats- und Universitätsbibliothek) Breslau, the University Libraries of (3) Halle, (4) Marburg, (5) Bonn, (6) Münster, (7) Göttingen, (8) Kiel, (9) Greifswald, (10) Königsberg (Staats- und Universitätsbibliothek), (11) Berlin; the copy of the catalogue of 1 was circulated to 2–11 inclusive, in that order. In addition it includes the contents of the libraries of the Technical colleges (Hochschulen) of (82) Aachen, (83) Berlin-Charlottenburg, (85) Breslau, (89) Hannover, and (102) the State Academy of Braunsberg. So far as the catalogue already records books which are also in (12) the State Library in Munich, or (300) the National Library, Vienna, a notice of these copies in Munich and Vienna is added while the catalogue is in the press; but the books in Munich and Vienna which are not in any of the 16 Prussian libraries are not included in the catalogue. Pressmarks are given in the printed catalogue for all books in (1) and for all recorded in (12) and (300). The ordinary printing is of two columns to a page, but an edition is also issued of one column, for libraries to add entries and location marks. Works in several volumes are fully described, to show the contents of each volume: this is of great service to borrowers, and is also done in the catalogue of the London Library for that reason.

The Catalogue consists of about 3 million entries, representing about $2\frac{1}{4}$ million separate works; about 25 per cent of the total entries are cross-references and nearly 60 per cent of the main entries represent works of which only one copy is found among all the libraries concerned. By far the strongest library represented is the State Library in Berlin, with over $2\frac{1}{4}$ million volumes; the next in importance is the university library of Göttingen with about 850,000. Yet the extent of the specialization in these libraries, and the consequent value of the Union Catalogue, may be further illustrated by a comparison between the two following entries in the duplicate State Library catalogue before it was

circulated among the ten Prussian university libraries and this same catalogue when first assembled on its return, now transformed by entries from these libraries into the Union Catalogue :—

	<i>State Library Catalogue.</i>	<i>The Union Catalogue.</i>
Under the heading BIBLE	888 entries	1,533 entries
” ” ” CICERO	1,150 ”	2,560 ”

This, of course, only represents the difference when the State Library catalogue returned to Berlin : it will be even greater now.

Development towards a National Union Catalogue [B. 91, 98]. The printed union catalogue is of the contents of 16 Prussian libraries up to the end of 1929. Since that time the card union catalogue has been carried on by the entries in the Title-lists which are printed on cards, and sorted into one sequence at the Auskunfts-bureau at Berlin ; and as the Title-lists not only cover all the libraries in the Gesamtkatalog but others in Germany and Austria, entries from these lists do more than continue the Gesamtkatalog, they are developing into a new union catalogue which may one day include all the chief libraries in Germany and Austria. Over 50,000 entries are added to this new union catalogue each year. It should also be noted that from 1892–1927 the Title-lists only included books published since 1892, but from 1928 onwards the lists give all additions to the contributing libraries except those of books already in the Gesamtkatalog or already printed in a previous list.

We may now turn to the work of the Information Bureau (Auskunfts-bureau) and with that note other points concerned with the Prussian union catalogue together with other developments in union cataloguing.

The Prussian Library Information Bureau (Auskunfts-bureau). A union catalogue, however well it is made, is obviously of little use unless it has a competent staff to work it and to keep it up to date ; and so, by edicts of the Prussian Ministry of Education of October 1st, 1904, and April 1st, 1905, the Prussian Library Information Bureau, the Auskunfts-bureau, was founded. It had three changes of address before, in 1908, it was allotted rooms in the State Library in Berlin, adjoining the room in which the

Prussian Union Catalogue was housed. It should be emphasized that the Bureau was a direct outcome of the Union Catalogue then being compiled, and its original duties were to check entries for that and sort them in, and to give information on the whereabouts of books in the Prussian state libraries, "To inform whether a required book was in any German library which had agreed to co-operate in the information service, and to give the name of this library." [B. 116, 4, 1905, 123 and B. 35, 2, 443.] It was mainly an agency to work the Union Catalogue, which would have been but a sleeping thing without it. It is, therefore, not possible to discuss either without relation to the other. Now as time went on and the Bureau not only became master of the resources at its command, but also increased those resources, it followed that the scope of its duties also increased.

Search Lists. In the first place it no longer relied entirely on the Union Catalogue for tracing books: but in those cases where a reference to the Union Catalogue gave only a negative result it made enquiries to libraries which were not represented in that. It compiled lists of books (Suchlisten) which it was unable to trace, arranged them alphabetically under subjects, and once a week sent these "Search Lists" out to 200-300 libraries all over Germany. Each of the Prussian libraries used to send out enquiries by post before the Bureau was established, but now these enquiries were neatly sorted out, classified and alphabetically arranged and sent out on one list by one post from one place, instead of being broadcast in any number, at all times, from many sources. The saving in postage was very great, and the saving in labour to a library which instead of receiving quantities of separate enquiries, often for single volumes, coming at all times and necessitating replies to a variety of addresses, only had to go through an ordered list coming regularly at stated intervals, was very great indeed. Furthermore, the results obtained from the Search Lists were not allowed to be lost, but were carefully preserved, as noted below. Not only did the Bureau approach libraries in all parts of Germany, but, when a search in Germany had failed, it made enquiries to libraries abroad, and so established foreign connections of the greatest value. These connections, both with home libraries—it is in

touch with over 1,000 German libraries—and with foreign libraries, were of a reciprocal nature, and the Bureau rapidly became the official centre for information as to the whereabouts of books in German libraries, and so, indirectly, for the arrangement of the loan of books (the Bureau itself does not effect loans, but only informs enquirers of sources from which books may be borrowed) not only for libraries throughout Germany, but also between German libraries and many of foreign countries. It further extended its work to assist enquirers in tracing and borrowing matter of which the whereabouts was not indicated in the "Union Catalogue, as for instance, MSS., maps, texts of music, oriental books, academic theses and "minor" literature which had all been excluded from that catalogue; in short it set out to assist a student to trace any written or printed material. The Bureau was now fulfilling its function of vitalizing not only the resources of the Prussian state libraries by means of the Union Catalogue, but to a large extent, the library resources of the whole of Germany. It was only able to undertake this work because it was situated in the State Library, for there it had access to a great mass of bibliographical literature, and was, furthermore, able to seek the advice of experts in various subjects, who, from their special knowledge, were sometimes able to say actually where a particular book or MS. was, and often able to indicate in which libraries it was most likely to be found.

In 1922 the Search Lists were discontinued, for although they gave fairly good results, their use had certain obvious disadvantages in such a large system. There was a loss of time in waiting for the 100-200 titles on each list to accumulate, and these could never be issued more often than once a week. They were costly, both in the time required to draw them up, to duplicate them, and for their postage: there was also considerable labour in the work of issuing and of handling them on return. A large percentage of each issue was always found to be useless, the libraries either offering nothing or only books which had already been traced elsewhere; for the libraries circulated could not be selected with reference to the items on each list. Since 1922 single titles, on receipt, are copied by a machine on to a small number of post cards (usually not more than 30) and these are

posted immediately to libraries known to have collections which might contain the book. Only those libraries reply which have the book.

Supplementary Catalogue. As noted above, the Bureau keeps a record of the results of its Search Lists and Search Cards, and in one sequence with this is incorporated a record of all other enquiries made for matter which was not in the Union Catalogue. For every enquiry, however made, a record is filed, whether the enquiry is successful or not. This record serves a double purpose: in the case of material found it forms a very valuable supplementary catalogue to the Union Catalogue, and in that for material not found, by indicating the libraries which had been approached, it saves the repetition of what would probably be useless and annoying enquiry to those libraries should the same material be asked for again. In this Supplementary Catalogue (*Ergänzungskatalog*) there are already entries for over 250,000 items sought for, which were not in the Union Catalogue but most of which have been found elsewhere. This includes entries for the items not found, which are revised every so often and fresh attempts made to trace them,

The entries consist of one copy of the Search Cards which have been issued, and any information resulting from the enquiry, of location or bibliographical detail, is added to this card. The catalogue may become even of more bibliographical value than the printed union catalogue (as the national union catalogue on cards very probably will). Yet this could only happen in the distant future, because the Supplementary Catalogue grows slowly and by chance, but, like the union catalogue of Outliers at the British National Central Library, it is bound to contain a large proportion of rare works, and because it contains locations of books in libraries all over Germany and in foreign countries, it will have entries for many valuable books not contained in the Prussian state libraries. The Supplementary Catalogue grows steadily, about 12,000 entries for books which have been traced are added each year, and it is interesting to note, from Table 4 on page 153, that since 1929 the increase of books annually traced through the Supplementary Catalogue is proportionately greater than that of books traced through the Union Catalogue.

It is now a matter of routine that wanted matter is sought for first in the Union Catalogue (the printed and the "national" catalogue on cards) and then in the Supplementary Catalogue, before reference is made to any other source ; and as an indication of the utility of the Union Catalogue it may be noted that of all enquiries received, 67 per cent are traced as a result of this first checking in it.

Library. The Bureau often receives requests for books of which the enquirer can give only an imperfect description. It further receives many enquiries, by post as well as in person, on bibliographical matters. For these reasons it has had to equip itself with a library of bibliographical reference books. All enquiries are checked and, as far as possible, stated fully and accurately before they are issued. This work is extremely important as it not only means that a greater number of books is traced, but that much time is saved for all librarians to whom the enquiries are sent. As the Bureau is regarded as the official centre of information about German libraries in general and even about foreign libraries as well, its library must be a reference library of books on the history and description of libraries, and of printed library catalogues : and, in particular, must have a copy of every book of this kind relating to German libraries. As far as foreign libraries are concerned, the policy has been to collect books on, and printed catalogues of, the chief "national" libraries. These books aid it not only in bibliographical research but also in locating books which are not recorded in the union or supplementary catalogues. In addition to these it possesses a large number of general and special bibliographies, and so is able to carry out researches into matters of bibliographical detail which would be impossible probably in any other library in Germany. The library of the Bureau now contains over 4,000 volumes of bibliographical works of this kind, and is possibly the finest collection of its type existing.

It will have been seen that as the Bureau cannot be separated from the Union Catalogue, the latter being the chief tool of the former, so the work achieved by this combination would have been of much less value without the assistance of the State Library. Yet another effect of this close co-operation between

the Bureau and the State Library is shown in the development of the Union Catalogue : for the Title-lists first printed by the State Library in 1892, extended in 1898 to include the additions to the ten Prussian university libraries, greatly facilitated the task of keeping the Union Catalogue up to date, and took the burden of this work almost entirely off the shoulders of the ten university libraries. If these had been compelled to send in separate notices of all their additions, that task would have been heavy ; but as all these libraries could be certain that a large proportion of their additions, and especially of German books, would also be acquired by the State Library, they only sent in notice of the foreign and older German books which they received. For the others they waited a week or so, studied the Title-lists, and then merely by giving references to the running numbers on these, informed the State Library of those items on the Title-lists which they had also received.

The Bureau is an integral part of the State Library in Berlin and its staff is under the control of the General Director of that library : but it has been allotted its own budget (exclusive of salaries), and the Director of the Bureau is directly responsible to the Ministry of Education for the expenditure in his department. The Bureau has five rooms in the State Library. One of these consists of a staff work room, another contains the Union Catalogue, the Supplementary Catalogue, and a part of the Bureau's own reference library, the third contains the remainder of this library and is used as an office where enquiries in person can be made, and the fourth and fifth are the offices of the Director and his chief assistant, respectively. There is a total staff of nine, made up of three librarians with full qualifications for senior posts in state libraries and of whom one is the Director of the Bureau, and six trained assistants. In addition there is a staff of two whose full time work is to keep the Prussian (and National) Union Catalogue up to date ; to collect, check and insert all the new entries for that. In the years 1930, 1931, 1932 and 1933 were added respectively 64,420 ; 59,612 ; 55,564 ; and 60,858 entries of all kinds. These two assistants also add the entries to the Supplementary Catalogue—15,000 ; 18,000 ; 9,245 and 11,250 in these four years respectively. This staff

forms a separate department, but is under the direction of the head of the Bureau.

The work of editing the Union Catalogue and seeing it through the press is carried out by a special department, of which the staff consists of two senior librarians and eight trained assistants, plus eight assistants on the Rockefeller Foundation since 1933.

The main duties of the Bureau are as follows :—

- (1) To act as a centre of information about German libraries and their contents, and to establish contact with libraries abroad, in a general endeavour to bring any enquirer into touch with a book, MS., or other printed or written material, or with special collections or sources of information, which may be required.
- (2) To operate the Union Catalogue and other bibliographical records, which includes building up the reference library.
- (3) To give information about books : bibliographical information of the following kind :—
 - (a) Book description and collation, especially of old or rare books.
 - (b) Verification of the existence of any book or of any facts about it.
- (4) The arrangement for copying work (by photograph or by hand) and translation.
- (5) The supply, in special cases, of short lists of books on given subjects.

Of these (1) and (2) constitute the main purpose of the Bureau, its *raison d'être*.

Applications and Enquiries. It must be remembered that the Bureau has nothing to do with the actual lending of books between libraries, and it should be further noted that the requests it receives fall into two distinct groups. For convenience the first of these may be said to consist of “applications” and the second of “enquiries.”

“Applications” are solely for the loan of books. They are not sent directly to the Bureau but to the lending department of the State Library. As many as possible are dealt with here, and only the remainder, for books not in the State Library, are sent down to the Bureau. Here they are checked in the Union

Catalogue (printed and cards), and, if necessary, the Supplementary Catalogue: when any book is traced, the application form is sent by the Bureau to the Lending Department of the State Library and from there to the library possessing the book, which sends it to the enquiring library. If the book is not found in these two catalogues the form is returned to the enquiring library with that information. These applications do not come directly from individuals but only from other libraries, if the reader has access to a library. The initial procedure is that a reader goes to his local library and presents his application; if the book is not possessed here the library sends the application to the chief state library in its district, and if it is still unable to obtain it, sends the request to the State Library in Berlin. Originally all libraries sent directly to Berlin in the first instance, but applications are now regionalized to relieve the strain on the State Library and the other large libraries in the Union Catalogue. If a reader lives in the country and outside a library district, he may obtain permission to send applications directly to the State Library in Berlin.

All applications are made on special red slips, and a large number of these is received daily at the State Library. It is important to note that they go first to the library, and that only those which cannot be supplied from there are sent down to the Bureau. They are dealt with this way round to save time, for they are primarily applications for loan from the State Library's stock, and if they came first to the Bureau, and those found to be in the State Library were later sent up to the Lending Department there, at least a day's delay in the issue of the books would result. This procedure would, of course, be possible, since a copy of the catalogue of the State Library is included in the Union Catalogue.

"Enquiries." These are sent by individuals and by libraries direct to the Bureau. They may be divided into three groups. 1. Enquiries for bibliographical information coming from German individuals and libraries. 2. Enquiries for the location of books of which the loan is needed, also coming from German libraries and individuals. The enquiries under this head consist of applications already made to the State Library which had been

passed on to the Bureau and which the Bureau had been unable to trace through the Union and Supplementary Catalogues. The applications had been returned to the enquiring libraries with this information, as noted above, and now the libraries or individual readers made a second enquiry, this time direct to the Bureau, asking that further search should be made.

3. Enquiries both for bibliographical information and for books required on loan, coming from individuals and libraries abroad. With regard to "bibliographical information" the Bureau has to restrict its activities to tasks which are not likely to be lengthy. It cannot compile long lists of books, but will supply the titles of one or two books on a subject. It will check references, collations, and give information on the existence of translations, date and nature of various editions of a book, and supply bibliographical data of a like kind. Much of this information it can obtain from its own library or from the State Library, but it also sends enquiries to other libraries both in Germany and abroad. It makes every endeavour to trace books which are not recorded in the Union and Supplementary Catalogues, both by research in its collection of printed catalogues and by "Umfrage," the issue of search cards (formerly lists) and by telephone enquiry. When it locates a book it sends a notice to the enquirer informing him of the library possessing it. He must then himself make arrangements directly with this library for seeing the book. If a foreign book cannot be traced in Germany the enquirer is informed, and enquiry is only made to foreign libraries if a special request for this to be done is received at the Bureau. Exceptions to this rule are made with Austrian and Swiss books. Many libraries in these countries are in close contact with the German Lending System, a large number of Austrian libraries officially belong to it, so that search is made in these countries, without reference to the enquirer, for all Austrian and Swiss books that cannot be found in Germany.

The Bureau makes every endeavour to satisfy enquiries from abroad. If a book is needed on loan, search is made in the Union and Supplementary Catalogues, and, if necessary, enquiries are sent to German libraries by all the usual methods. If the book is found, a notice is sent to the enquiring library giving the

address of this location ; the enquiring library must then itself apply for the book. In cases of urgency the Bureau will ask for the book to be sent in answer to the original request.

Personal Enquiries. The Bureau does not only conduct its work by postal communication, but has a special room where enquiries can be made in person, and where a member of the staff is always in attendance to give help to enquirers. Visitors to this part of the Bureau are more often in search of bibliographical information than of the whereabouts of a particular book, and their enquiries therefore frequently take some time to answer. But enquirers may themselves consult any books in the Bureau's library and are so encouraged to solve their own problems if they can. This "personal enquiry" section of the Bureau gives its services without charge. Enquiries may also be made by telephone, and use of the bureau in this way is growing extensively.

It has been said that enquiries may be sent to the Bureau by any person or institution, and if these are German, the Bureau, as a State institution, must try to answer them. Sometimes requests are received for information which could easily be supplied by a local library, and sometimes search has to be made for very cheap books in print. But neither happens frequently, since the practice of using local libraries is fairly general and most requests of these kinds are dealt with by those institutions.

Catalogues of Periodicals. The Bureau has not confined itself simply to the business of answering questions, but has promoted bibliographical research and interlending among German libraries by compiling and publishing two catalogues of periodicals [B. 70, 71]. B. 71, known as the "G.Z.V.," gives a list of all periodicals, German and foreign, found in some 300 of the chief German libraries in 1914. B. 70, known as the "G.A.Z.," was first published in 1921, then giving a list of foreign periodicals found in about 800 German libraries. The second, greatly enlarged, edition of the G.A.Z. appeared in 1929, containing 14,573 titles (as compared with the 4,500 of the 1921 edition) in some 1,500 German libraries, and equipped with a subject index to the general nature of the periodicals listed (see pp. 99-100).

The Bureau's Resources. The chief tools of the Bureau consist of the following :—

1. The Prussian Union Catalogue.
 2. The Supplementary Catalogue.
 3. The National Union Catalogue [information on this is given on pp. 135-6, 138, 143].
 4. Indexes to sources of special information [as in B. 70, 71, 110].
 5. Its reference library.
 6. The State Library, including the assistance of its staff.
- All these resources may, if necessary, be used before search cards are sent out or any other enquiry made outside the building.

Statistics. The Bureau now receives daily about :—

1. 40-60 enquiries by post direct.
2. 50-60 enquiries made in person.
3. 5-15 enquiries made by telephone.
4. 80-100 applications made via the State Library. These consist of the applications on red forms for the loan of books, which were made to the State Library, but are sent from the Lending Department there to the Bureau because the books are not available in the State Library. They are dealt with by the Bureau in about four hours because if the books are not found through the Union and Supplementary Catalogues the forms are merely returned to the enquirer with that information. Exhaustive search is only made if these applications are sent again directly to the Bureau as enquiries.

Some idea of the extent and development together with the success of the Bureau's work may be gained from the following details of these enquiries and applications [from B. 74]¹ :—

Table 1. Enquiries made directly to the bureau by post, analysed under the following heads: 1. The number of communications received. 2. The total number of items detailed in these communications, either for loan or for information.

¹ Details of libraries lending in the period 1905-09 are given in B.87, pp. 401-05.

3. The number and percentage of these which were successfully answered. 4. The number of books required traced in the Prussian State Libraries. 5. The number traced in other German libraries. 6. The number traced in foreign libraries.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1905	—	3,295	2,113 = 64 %	1,333	768	12
1906	1,841	4,579	3,004 = 66 %	1,967	1,016	21
1907	2,509	6,829	4,892 = 72 %	3,239	1,601	52
1908	2,963	8,341	5,919 = 71 %	4,014	1,812	83
1909	3,428	9,616	7,178 = 75 %	5,150	1,905	123
1910	3,835	10,675	7,329 = 69 %	5,278	1,832	219
1911	4,593	12,430	8,866 = 71 %	6,234	2,398	234
1912	5,207	13,955	9,737 = 70 %	6,526	2,906	305
1913	5,314	13,970	9,583 = 68.7 %	6,307	3,046	230
1914	2,700	7,128	4,927 = 69 %	3,305	1,490	132
1915	2,012	5,213	3,375 = 65 %	2,237	1,094	44
1916	2,184	5,869	3,838 = 65 %	2,678	1,140	20
1917	1,944	5,675	3,494 = 61 %	2,365	1,105	24
1918	2,311	7,709	4,056 = 52 %	3,087	928	41
1919	3,064	11,104	6,028 = 54.3 %	4,801	1,174	53
1920	3,274	12,148	5,825 = 48 %	4,786	1,001	38
1921	2,918	10,230	4,916 = 48 %	3,784	1,084	48
1922	2,127	7,482	4,419 = 59 %	3,030	1,204	185
1923	1,742	7,218	5,032 = 69 %	3,199	1,518	315
1924	2,784	8,255	5,979 = 72 %	3,415	2,198	366
1925	3,386	9,950	7,361 = 74 %	4,495	2,616	250
1926	3,870	10,522	7,821 = 74 %	4,617	3,028	176
1927	3,859	11,168	8,408 = 75.2 %	4,936	3,253	219
1928	4,122	13,069	9,708 = 74 %	5,670	3,738	300
1929	4,904	15,083	11,435 = 76 %	6,920	4,131	384
1930	5,420	19,108	14,633 = 76.6 %	8,768	5,553	312
1931	5,308	18,070	13,880 = 76.2 %	8,402	5,134	234
1932	5,270	18,129	13,843 = 76.4 %	8,516	5,053	274
1933	4,235	16,153	10,983 = 68 %	6,908	3,934	141

Table 2. The following is an analysis of enquiries (included in the above) received by the Bureau from foreign libraries [B. 74]. The numbers in parentheses are those which the Bureau successfully answered.

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Africa, South	—	3(2)	—	26(26)	—	1(1)	14(10)
America, U.S.	9(9)	28(22)	25(19)	36(30)	11(8)	151(68)	113(109)
Austria ..	185(98)	220(158)	257(176)	375(288)	267(217)	803(556)	506(422)
Belgium ..	2(2)	30(30)	3(1)	6(2)	126(52)	17(8)	18(14)
China	—	—	12(12)	—	—	—	—
Czecho-Slovakia	28(18)	56(39)	94(62)	156(87)	162(149)	156(102)	106(73)
Denmark ..	—	29(14)	15(14)	83(51)	21(16)	11(6)	21(16)
Dutch E. Indies	—	—	2(2)	—	2(—)	—	—
Estonia ..	3(2)	—	—	1(—)	16(2)	9(4)	3(3)
Finland ..	—	1(1)	—	1(—)	1(1)	1(1)	2(2)
France	1(1)	4(2)	53(43)	6(3)	19(11)	87(82)	22(19)
Great Britain	26(20)	409(322)	39(38)	103(77)	137(113)	112(87)	59(42)
Greece ..	1(1)	—	—	14(6)	—	—	—
Holland ..	360(240)	60(47)	335(196)	208(123)	893(506)	243(203)	1,347(361)
Hungary ..	16(11)	31(26)	53(27)	67(43)	98(63)	137(109)	127(88)
India ..	—	—	—	—	2(—)	—	9(9)
Italy	19(7)	—	4(2)	26(19)	112(77)	78(63)	58(40)
Japan ..	—	—	42(42)	—	—	—	—
Java	—	—	—	2(—)	—	—	—
Jugoslavia	—	—	—	—	3(—)	11(9)	—
Larvia ..	2(2)	—	—	—	1(1)	5(3)	16(11)
Lithuania	1(1)	2(1)	—	23(14)	2(1)	—	—
Luxembourg	—	—	—	—	—	—	2(1)
Norway ..	—	—	—	—	—	7(7)	4(3)
Palestine ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	1(1)
Poland ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Portugal ..	4(4)	31(14)	93(54)	176(98)	83(71)	243(194)	184(157)
Rumania ..	—	—	50(50)	—	—	—	—
Russia U.S.S.R.	—	—	14(6)	2(1)	3(1)	14(9)	9(8)
Spain ..	—	—	1(1)	15(8)	5(2)	4(4)	—
Sweden ..	—	—	—	20(13)	6(4)	151(83)	2(2)
Switzerland	—	24(13)	16(7)	23(19)	28(21)	69(51)	52(41)
Turkey ..	25(12)	150(107)	169(124)	72(58)	121(106)	137(116)	169(118)
Totals	682(324)	1,080(798)	1,277(876)	1,441(966)	2,123(1,421)	2,447(1,766)	2,844(1,550)

Table 3. Enquiries sent by the Bureau to similar centres and individual libraries in other countries and successfully answered by these. The numbers not so answered are not available.

	<i>Austria</i>	<i>Belgium</i>	<i>Denmark</i>	<i>Holland</i>	<i>Sweden</i>	<i>Switzerland¹ and Others</i>	<i>Total</i>
1905	12						12
1906	21						21
1907	16					36	52
1908	9	26				48	83
1909	17	12	20	14		60	123
1910	87	30	19	38		45	219
1911	97	25	21	36		55	234
1912	135	42	30	37		61	305
1913	105	35	5	36	4	45	230
1914	46	19	6	19		42	132
1915	24			4		16	44
1916							20
1917							24
1918							41
1919							53
1920							38
1921							48
1922	120					65	185
1923	177					138	315
1924	184					182	366
1925	121					129	250
1926	82					94	176
1927	62					157	219
1928	96					204	300
1929	153					180	333
1930	92					220	312
1931	58					176	234
1932	90					184	274
1933	65					76	141

These figures do not by any means include all the transactions of this kind which were effected during the period between libraries in Germany and in these countries, but only those which went through the Bureau. A great deal of borrowing and lending is still done directly between the libraries concerned. For example, if a library in any country requires a thesis of a German

¹ Switzerland only, 1908-15.

university, it not seldom applies for the loan directly to the library of that university; and so, one library will sometimes apply directly to another if it knows that this latter contains the required book whatever that may be. The practice is sometimes justified if the enquiring library has first made certain that the book is not available in its own country; but in any case the transaction will be unknown to the bureau. As some indication of the extent of this direct borrowing and lending it may be noted that in 1929, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933, the Prussian State Library alone lent 2,552; 2,485; 2,616; 3,088; 2,911 books to, and borrowed 213, 218, 275, 150, 126 from, foreign libraries by direct transactions in these years respectively; a very large proportion of the loans were made to German libraries in Austria, Czecho-Slovakia and Poland, and to libraries in Switzerland, Holland and the Scandinavian countries.

On March 31st, 1934, Prussian libraries alone had inter-lending relations with 478 foreign libraries in 31 countries; Austria 61, Switzerland 52, Holland 49, Italy 47, Great Britain 47, Czecho-Slovakia 31, Poland 26, Sweden 22, Hungary 20, Denmark 16, Belgium 16, France 14, Russia 10, United States of America 9, Latvia 8, Spain 8, Rumania 7, India 6, Norway 5, Finland 4, Dantzig 3, Esthonia 3, Lithuania 2, Serbia 2, Jugoslavia 2, Bulgaria 2, Greece 2, Luxembourg 1, Memelland 1, Palestine 1, Turkey 1. [B. 74 :—year 1933(–34). p. 18].

No statistics are available of the use made of the Bureau by callers in person or by telephone enquiry.

In addition to these direct enquiries, the Bureau has dealt with applications coming through the State Library as follows [B. 74] :

Table 4. 1. Total of applications received from the State Library. 2. Number and percentage of these traced through the two catalogues : since 1922 the forms being sent to the libraries having the books. 3. Number traced through the Union Catalogue. 4. Number traced through the Supplementary Catalogue. 5. Number untraced : the forms being returned to the enquirers.

	1	2	3	4	5
1911	1,356	195			
1912	1,536	295			
1913	921	181			
1916	254	53			
1917	183	43			
1918	116	17			
1919	170	43			
1920	169	51			
1921	263	104			
1922	5,319	1,549 = 29.1 %			3,770
1923	5,868	1,728 = 29.4 %	1,228	500	4,140
1924	12,558	2,857 = 22.7 %	2,018	839	9,701
1925	16,803	3,276 = 19.4 %	2,344	932	13,527
1926	18,533	3,623 = 19.5 %	2,900	723	14,910
1927	20,277	3,895 = 19.5 %	3,315	580	16,382
1928	21,967	4,214 = 19 %	3,549	665	17,758
1929	24,325	4,814 = 19.8 %	4,104	710	19,511
1930	28,194	5,466 = 19.4 %	4,666	800	22,728
1931	29,131	6,222 = 21.4 %	5,133	1,089	22,809
1932	29,766	6,214 = 20.8 %	4,634	1,580	22,452
1933	21,959	4,322 = 19.7 %	3,172	1,150	17,637

Cost. On books borrowed between libraries in the system the full cost of postage is paid by the borrowing and lending libraries, each library paying the postage one way. The borrowing library makes a flat rate charge of 10 pf. to the reader for each volume borrowed. This applies only to registered readers in each library, but as such registration is easy to obtain it may be said to apply to all readers: and, of course, it only applies to applications sent through a library. State libraries receive a grant from the State to cover their postage charges; this is based on their previous year's expenditure in postage. Other libraries have to pay postages entirely from their own funds: this keeps some small libraries from joining the system, and causes others which are in it sometimes to refuse to borrow books for their readers although this is against the regulations of the system, or to charge borrowers more than 10 pf.—also a breach of the rules. Before joining, some libraries obtain additional funds from their localities or members to meet this prospective cost.

All libraries in the system lend only to other libraries unless the reader lives outside a library district: in that case books may

be sent direct to him. Books available for home reading in the lending library are usually lent for home reading to a borrowing library. When a book is lent directly to an individual living outside a library area he must at present pay full postage on the book each way: but there is strong opposition to this rule, especially in South Germany, and some way may be found to enable readers to obtain these books for 10 pfgr.

For enquiries sent to the Bureau a similar charge of 10 pfgr. is made for each title on which information is given: thus for a list of five titles in answer to an enquiry the Bureau charges 50 pfgr. This, of course, is in addition to the charge of 10 pfgr. the enquirer will have to pay his local library if he subsequently borrows any of these items through it.

These charges only apply to applications coming from within Germany. The Bureau gives information free in answer to enquiries coming from abroad, but if a book is borrowed by a foreign library from a German library the former must pay the full cost of postage.

*The National System. The Lending System after the foundation of the Bureau.*¹ As noted on p. 131, after the Prussian system had become fully established in 1902, other States formed similar systems for lending between State libraries, but none set up a Bureau or projected a union catalogue. Now when the Prussian Information Bureau had been established, and the various exchange lending systems in the other States had got into active operation, it followed as a natural result that non-state libraries everywhere should become more and more anxious for admission. Many of these had made application to join the systems of their own States almost from the times when these had first begun, but with the single exception of some of the non-state higher academies in Prussia, already noted on p. 131, these applications had been steadily refused. The various systems were limited to the state libraries because it was believed that the admission of other libraries, many of which would be of no great size, would result in the large state libraries being drained of books to feed these smaller libraries, which in their turn would contribute little to the state libraries. It seemed as though a line had to be drawn

¹ This section owes much to B. 66, 67.

somewhere and that that between state and non-state libraries was the most convenient and satisfactory one to fix. Another reason for the exclusion of the non-state libraries was that many of these were "free," whereas a number of the state libraries charged their readers small annual subscriptions; the Prussian university libraries, for instance, had levied such fees since 1910. This meant that if libraries all and sundry were admitted to a system, a state library which charged its own readers an annual subscription would find itself lending its books for nothing to readers of a "free" non-state library. However, in spite of these difficulties it gradually became evident that it was not going to be right to exclude the small libraries. In the first place, and this again partly because specialization was so prevalent, it not seldom happened that a wanted book was eventually traced in a small non-state library, and it became clear that the quality if not the quantity of the contribution that these could make to the general system would be very considerable. It was thought too, although apparently steps were not everywhere taken to put the idea into practice until many non-state libraries had already been admitted, that if enquiries from small libraries could first be sent to a local state library before going on to the State Library at Berlin, the strain at least on that library could be considerably lightened. Finally, the pressure of demand from the small libraries showed that a very large number of readers was being excluded from the benefits of the various systems and the services of the Bureau in Berlin, and that these services, which were intended to be State and national respectively, were in reality not so, since they were closed to a large part of the reading public.

At all events, after a great many applications from non-state libraries had been refused, and some unofficial arrangements had been made for lending between various state and non-state libraries, a formal proposal made by the town library of Stettin in 1906, and by the city library of Cologne in 1907, brought into prominence the question of the general admittance of the non-state libraries. The "proprietors" of the various systems, however, although now fully alive to the need for re-organization, moved cautiously. The existing schemes were greatly improved

towards the end of 1909 by the alteration of the twice weekly system of exchange to one of daily remittances of books and discharge of order forms : a speeding up of the greatest value in itself, and which naturally made the non-state libraries all the more anxious to join. But it was not until November 1st of the next year, 1910, that the barriers were taken away and regulations issued, which permitted all non-state public libraries of importance to be admitted to the systems of their respective states. In these regulations emphasis was laid on the subordination of the newly included non-state libraries to the state university library of their area, in order to prevent an undue pressure on the State Library in Berlin. Thus books might only be ordered from Berlin when they were not to be obtained from the local university library. The question of fees was got over by a rule which directed that the borrowing fee for a library which charged a subscription should remain at 10 pf. per volume, for other libraries it was fixed at 20 pf. per volume.

Thus after 1910 Germany had a lending system in every state, with the Prussian State Library as a national centre, linking the systems together in such a way that the whole thing could be divided into two grades. The first grade, the so-called "inner circle," was composed of the chief state library and the state university libraries in every system, for which the Prussian State Library served as a direct centre of enquiry. The second grade, the so-called "outer circle," consisted of various non-state libraries, public libraries of many kinds, and libraries of non-state schools, colleges and other institutions, and those few state libraries which did not charge a subscription : for these the state university library of their own district formed the first centre of enquiry, and the Berlin library and Bureau the second. All "public" libraries containing matter likely to be of value to a student were now included in one or other of these systems, yet although the Prussian Bureau acted as a centre for all the chief state libraries in Germany, there was still a separate system for each state, with the result that there was sometimes difficulty in effecting a loan between libraries in different states.

It has been thought that the stimulus to advance from this position to a unified German Lending System came from without.

A very liberal Italian library regulation of August 3rd, 1908, made possible a direct lending system between Italy and other countries. This seems to have inspired German librarians with a desire to do a like thing for Germany; and as such a regulation would pre-suppose the existence of an internal national system of exchange lending, the question immediately brought up the necessity of welding the existing state systems in Germany into unity. At all events, whether due to the influence of the Italian regulation or not, plans were drawn up in April, 1913, for a direct lending system both between the confederated German States themselves and between Germany and foreign countries. A list of the libraries and other institutions to be included in this system was compiled; but then, before the scheme could be ratified and put into force, in 1914 came the war, and the work had to be abandoned.

What the fat years could not do, the lean years of the post-war period have achieved. The question was once again brought to the fore by a regulation coming from the librarians, publishers, booksellers and book-lovers of all kinds assembled at the exhibition, "The German Book," at Frankfurt in October, 1920, which expressed on behalf of the thousands there assembled and represented, a strong desire for a unified lending system between all German libraries. The result of this was the Exchange Lending Regulations for German Libraries (*Leihverkehrsordnung für die deutschen Bibliotheken*) of February 25th, 1924 (published in *Z. f. B.* vol. 41, 1924, pp. 138-40, and *B.* 116, vol. 16, 1925, pp. 242-5, and in part translated in *B.* 45 pp. 263-4) by which all libraries in the state systems lend to one another (for later rules see *B.* 109). As Dr. R. Fick had already proposed in 1908, the Prussian system (established in 1893) and similar systems in Würtemberg (1902), Baden (1905) and Bavaria (1908) were used as a foundation. With regard to the constitution of the German Lending System, it should be noted that it was not formed by a law coming from a superior power, but that it was agreed on and drawn up by the governments of the various States, who in all cases were guided by the opinions of representative librarians. The actual regulations were based on those in force for the various States and particularly on those issued on November

1st, 1910 (see p. 156). The general conditions of reciprocity and the obligation of the borrowing library to bear the costs of carriage were emphasized. A further condition stated that all libraries admitted to the system must be managed on accepted principles. This apparently means that no library shall be admitted which is not organized and managed up to some standard of efficiency. It would, of course, be very difficult to define such a standard, and no attempt is made to define it. It seems that the intention of the rule is merely to safeguard the system against the admission of badly organized or otherwise inefficient libraries, and further, that this test is only likely to be applied as a deciding factor when the admission of a library is questionable on other grounds.

No library, except those of secondary schools, may join the system unless it has a trained librarian. This, with the cost of postage, keeps out some libraries, especially those of societies, but it is a sound rule, not only for the success of the system, but for the good of library service generally—it is an incentive for the employment of trained librarians everywhere. The fitness of a library to join the system is decided by the responsible authorities in the various States : in Prussia by the State Library Commission.

Perhaps the chief point about the national system is that its establishment made the acceptance of the 10 pfg. charge to the borrower, general. Previously, this only held good for books lent between state libraries within each State, now it applies to books lent between any libraries admitted to the system, wherever they might be in relation to each other, throughout Germany.

It should be noted that the successful compilation and official ratification of these rules was chiefly due to active co-operation between the advisers for library affairs to the respective governments of Prussia and Bavaria : and that the great Bavarian state library at Munich has come to hold the position of a second "centre" for the general system, a centre for the south-west of Germany, and subsidiary only to the Prussian state library in Berlin.

The South-West German System [B. 112, 113]. Now although the principle that small libraries should apply to their local state university library before applying to Berlin or Munich was

observed, it became evident soon after the establishment of the general system that the pressure on these and the other great libraries was going to be heavy, as, indeed, it had been before 1924. A glance at Table 2 on pp. 163-4 will show how the libraries of Berlin, Göttingen, Karlsruhe, Munich, and Stuttgart have borne the brunt of the lending service. As a result of this, and in order to avoid the danger of overburdening the large state libraries, the chief libraries of the South-West of Germany came to a decision in the summer of 1924, a few months after the inauguration of the general lending system, to circulate order slips for books first among themselves in a definite sequence before sending them to Munich or Berlin.

Regulations for this purpose came into force on November 1st, 1924, and these form a supplement to the National regulations for the general lending system issued on February 25th of the same year. The regulations, of which a full text is given in B. 112 and where a description of the system may be found, affect the following libraries. The order in which they are here given shows the route which enquiry slips sent from the library at the top of each column must follow :—

Frankfurt	Darmstadt	Heidelberg	Karlsruhe	Freiburg	Tübingen	Stuttgart
Darmstadt	Frankfurt	Karlsruhe	Freiburg	Karlsruhe	Stuttgart	Tübingen
Heidelberg	—	Freiburg	Heidelberg	—	Frankfurt	—
Karlsruhe	—	Darmstadt	—	—	Darmstadt	—
Freiburg	—	Frankfurt	—	—	Heidelberg	—
Tübingen	—	—	—	—	Karlsruhe	—
Stuttgart	—	—	—	—	Freiburg	—
Munich	—	—	—	—	—	—

If the book is not found at any intermediary library it will be seen that every slip concludes its journey, at least as far as this arrangement is concerned, at Munich; if the book cannot be supplied here Munich sends the slip on to Berlin where it is dealt with in the ordinary way. These routes are compulsory for the majority of order forms. Exceptions are allowed in the case of enquiries for rare or very urgently needed works which the enquiring library may know to be in one of these other libraries; the order form may then be sent directly to the library possessing the book; and, according to the nature of the book required, librarians are authorized to send on the slips omitting Karlsruhe or Stuttgart,

in order to relieve the pressure on these two great libraries, at their discretion. The regulations insist that all enquiry slips, which are on specially marked forms, shall be dealt with immediately on receipt. At Frankfurt many of the enquiries are checked in the union catalogue (*Sammelkatalog*) at the Rothschild Library (see pp. 165-68) and books are thereby traced in libraries all over Germany.

This system has worked very well. In 1925 a questionnaire sent to the libraries concerned revealed considerable satisfaction with the arrangement and evoked no suggestions for its alteration. Of course the chief drawback to such a system is the length of time it takes for some enquiries to be answered. Slips which have to go the whole way round to Berlin are bound to be a long time en route, and may have been sent out three or four weeks before the required book arrives. This is the only complaint, but as by far the greater number of required books are found in one of the libraries of the system, it is not a serious matter and is, further, one that will be partly remedied as the system speeds up and as the resources of the libraries concerned are mutually better known.

Elsewhere in Germany applications are regionalized as has been mentioned on pp. 145, 156. Any university or other state library may send applications direct to the State Library, Berlin. Apart from these, there is in every town or district one library, other than the state library if such exists, which is a local centre. All applications from the other libraries must first go to this, which, if it cannot supply the books required, usually sends the applications to the nearest state library. If this cannot supply the book it usually sends the application to the State Library, Berlin. But the local centre may not always send such applications to the nearest state library if it thinks that the books may be in any other libraries in the district, but may return the applications to the enquirers suggesting that these libraries be tried before the applications are sent to the nearest state library. But any library in the system, having first tried its local main state library, may dispense with the Bureau and apply directly to any other library in the system if it knows that this has the book required. For a book so borrowed the reader still has to pay only 10 (now often

30) pfg., just as if the book were borrowed on information from the Bureau.

The Lending System and General Library Service. It is clear all through the history of the development of the German Lending System that its object has been to promote the advancement of "learning" in the restricted sense of that term. It has been directed to serve scholars, students and other "educated" people. It is also clear that that is still its policy: for, with all the modifications of the requirements governing the admission of libraries into the system, no library which does not contain matter of a definite research value, and only a selection of those technical and commercial libraries which do, can yet be admitted to it. Public reading rooms and people's libraries are still excluded. But there can, of course, be no such thing as finality in a matter of this kind, and the system is being continually extended; and in so far as it now includes all the chief "research" libraries, and a total of 847 libraries of all kinds throughout the country, it may be readily conceded that in it Germany now possesses a cultural institution of a truly national character.

The achievement of bringing all these libraries into touch is a work which lays a foundation for the surer and wider development of the cultural life of the nation in a double way. In the first place it does this by the very vitalizing of the resources of all these libraries, in bringing the nature of their contents to light, and in establishing ready access between readers and books: and in the second by helping to improve the standard of every individual library and to guide it in book selection.

As far as vitalizing the resources is concerned, the following figures of books lent between libraries show how the introduction of the system retrieved this traffic from the decline which had set in during the hard years following the war, and how it has developed since:—

1913	226,000
1923	113,000
1925	239,000
1932	450,000

It will be seen that the 1913 figures dwindled to half their size

in 1923, but in 1925, the first year after the introduction of the system, these again were more than doubled, and exceeded the latest pre-war figures. This revival would have been impossible but for the introduction of the system.

For the influence on individual libraries, it seems to be agreed in Germany that the demands made by the system in routine work, dealing with forms, sending out and registering books, cataloguing, and so on, have had a healthy and stimulating effect: and here and there have led to an increase in staff. Standardization in routine work is all to the good; and it can be certain that the system has done nothing to tamper with that side of the individuality of a library which really matters. On the contrary, the variety of the libraries in different states, and even in the same state, their different characteristics and objects, is a matter of extreme importance. Indeed it is this very fact of the specialization in German libraries, to which we have already referred, that has made the system worth while. And now that the knowledge of the nature and contents of other libraries is becoming common property, it may be expected that each library will concentrate on its own special branch of work with greater vigour and effectiveness. In addition, gaps in the general stock are now better known, and additional subjects for specialization can be allotted to, or spontaneously taken up by, the most suitable libraries willing to undertake the work. So that it is felt that the system has done much to preserve and encourage individuality: and that in particular it has widened the scope and given an altogether fuller life to the smaller libraries, whose strength it has greatly increased, and who through it, have won for themselves many extra readers for whose work their resources would otherwise have been insufficient.

The following figures give an indication of the extent to which inter-library lending is practised in Germany, and how it is shared by various libraries.

Table 1. Transactions of the State Library, Berlin [B. 74].
1. Books lent to libraries in the Leihverkehr. 2. Books borrowed from libraries in the Leihverkehr. 3. Books lent to other German libraries. 4. Books borrowed from other German libraries. 5. Books lent to foreign libraries. 6. Books borrowed

from foreign libraries. 7. Total lent. 8. Total borrowed.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1905	12,694	417	1,438	149	195	3	14,327	509
1906	14,505	430	6,101	680	859	126	21,465	1,236
1907	20,343	675	7,693	1,037	1,469	155	29,505	1,867
1908	19,701	755	8,277	996	771	426	28,749	2,177
1909	23,635	568	8,969	963	1,066	426	33,670	1,957
1910	28,499	637	10,912	673	1,547	305	40,958	1,615
1911	32,423	685	10,137	570	1,394	104	43,954	1,359
1912	35,467	637	10,206	596	1,677	103	47,350	1,336
1913	40,847	709	11,009	671	1,547	119	53,403	1,499
1914	18,391	421	4,930	182	599	25	23,920	628
1915	16,567	638	4,685	304	458	18	21,710	960
1916	16,329	583	4,619	501	619	10	21,567	1,094
1917	15,639	755	4,284	617	493	69	20,416	1,441
1918	10,133	431	2,288	238	347	16	12,768	685
1919	17,806	482	3,758	449	164	8	21,728	939
1920	25,924	690	5,889	268	354	21	32,167	979
1921	30,598	724	10,538	434	522	1	41,658	1,163
1922	24,074	783	7,850	329	410	3	32,334	1,115
1923	19,097	614	10,762	370	482	16	30,341	1,000
1924	36,749	2,465	9,056	71	639	148	46,444	2,684
1925	42,366	2,639	5,404	69	1,115	65	48,885	2,773
1926	52,779	2,775	5,338	42	1,182	71	59,299	2,668
1927	58,566	4,188	5,230	59	1,696	132	65,492	4,379
1928	59,279	4,272	6,504	120	2,008	216	67,791	4,608
1929	65,596	4,233	6,030	103	2,553	213	74,178	4,549
1930	76,450	5,264	5,889	107	2,485	218	84,824	5,589
1931	76,113	6,548	4,375	121	2,806	275	83,294	6,944
1932	76,370	7,639	5,255	92	3,088	150	84,713	7,881
1933	63,890	9,124	3,855	92	2,911	126	70,656	9,342

Table 2. Transactions of a selection of German libraries through the Leihverkehr showing the number of books lent, and, in parentheses, the number borrowed [B. 116]. It will be noticed that certain libraries, especially the large libraries of Berlin, Göttingen, Halle, Karlsruhe, Munich and Stuttgart, bear the brunt of the lending and do comparatively little borrowing, lending many more books than they borrow; and that the reverse holds for other libraries, especially Dantzig B.T.H. (Library of the Technical High School), Düsseldorf, all the Frankfurt libraries, Hannover, Kiel, Köln and Stettin. These differences are analysed in B. 67.

	1905-6	1913-14	1917-18	1925-26	1931-32	1932-33
Berlin S.B.	22,437(1,037)	56,366(2,190)	17,731(563)	49,338(3,204)	83,896(8,300)	85,169(9,181)
Bonn U.B.	4,174(1,648)	11,551(3,842)	4,958(829)	7,963(3,267)	11,773(7,790)	13,975(8,526)
Breslau S.u. U.B.	4,277(1,454)	9,199(3,540)	6,416(2,080)	5,823(3,885)	10,096(7,323)	11,407(5,424)
Dantzig S.B.	—	2,984(301)	1,679(128)	5,152(284)	4,051(1,156)	3,526(1,401)
" B.T.H.	—	82(1,285)	123(270)	53(185)	180(1,167)	198(1,861)
Düsseldorf L.B.	177(106)	1,222(1,685)	557(565)	1,167(2,030)	2,516(4,242)	2,762(4,749)
Frankfurt-a.-M.						
Roth.B.	303(332)	280(1,201)	60(507)	137(1,732)	731(2,476)	759(1,988)
Senck.B.	—	361(902)	91(564)	520(1,353)	2,581(2,783)	3,502(2,594)
" St. B.	263(403)	753(865)	580(1,025)	2,185(2,375)	5,867(6,246)	6,421(6,069)
Giessen U.B.	1,801(2,582)	2,244(2,404)	—	—	7,989(2,706)	8,810(3,328)
Göttingen U.B.	7,614(1,573)	12,595(2,894)	7,710(827)	13,614(2,829)	21,103(5,074)	23,794(5,922)
Griefswald U.B.	3,315(1,086)	3,199(4,021)	2,623(1,077)	3,551(2,733)	4,931(8,296)	5,267(7,877)
Halle U.B.	4,381(1,215)	6,750(3,181)	3,108(969)	10,179(2,794)	17,132(5,261)	16,432(5,415)
Hamburg S.u. U.B.	788(409)	2,569(1,808)	1,425(1,119)	1,398(3,822)	3,273(5,962)	3,247(4,603)
Hannover Pr. B.	—	945(1,680)	779(1,009)	2,381(2,340)	1,814(3,580)	2,550(3,599)
Karlsruhe L.B.	2,143(270)	11,515(1,289)	6,946(632)	13,127(2,402)	20,337(3,072)	17,206(3,520)
Kiel U.B.	958(1,313)	1,902(3,142)	1,157(981)	1,401(2,091)	6,365(6,441)	6,405(7,259)
Köln U.u.S.B.	—	3,061(—)	579(437)	1,101(5,689)	5,103(8,856)	5,483(10,019)
Königsberg S.u. U.B.	2,932(1,015)	4,223(2,778)	3,179(1,514)	4,553(1,582)	7,054(4,466)	8,001(3,945)
Leipzig U.B.	3,015(1,022)	4,473(2,190)	3,539(467)	3,968(2,987)	13,049(9,695)	14,778(9,929)
Mainz St. B.	—	271(1,434)	—	233(964)	604(1,731)	555(2,215)
Marburg U.B.	2,002(2,393)	3,777(4,683)	1,475(1,190)	1,708(3,168)	3,626(6,531)	3,924(7,090)
Münich S.B.	—	—	13,486(844)	21,970(2,761)	28,087(1,194)	28,174(1,523)
Münster U.B.	2,473(2,552)	3,149(7,539)	4,047(2,132)	3,620(3,542)	8,513(8,547)	8,937(9,515)
Stettin St. B.	18(83)	32(865)	17(548)	59(1,489)	77(2,089)	232(2,120)
Stuttgart L.B.	—	27,756(2,224)	20,944(934)	18,849(1,502)	21,771(1,778)	23,426(1,818)
Tübingen U.B.	1,848(1,385)	2,188(1,691)	2,006(595)	2,895(1,816)	5,118(2,763)	5,760(2,795)

OTHER MATTERS.

The Frankfurt Union Catalogue. [B. 110, p. 775, with bibliography; and 31, p. 12].

This catalogue, of which the full title is *Der Sammelkatalog wissenschaftlicher Bibliotheken des deutschen Sprachgebiets bei der Freiherrlich Carl von Rothschild'schen Öffentlichen Bibliothek, Frankfurt-a.-M.*, may almost be described as a private venture, originated and largely carried through by one man, Dr. Christian W. Berghoeffer. Dr. Berghoeffer, who has been librarian of the Rothschild Library since it was formed in 1887, conceived the idea of the *Sammelkatalog* and began it in 1891, but it was not opened to the use of the public until 1921. It is a unification of published and typewritten catalogues and lists of additions issued by libraries in Germany and other German speaking areas in Europe.

Dr. Berghoeffer collected as many catalogues as he could, and these were then cut up, the titles pasted on cards of international size, with the names of possessing libraries stamped on each, and sorted into one sequence at the Rothschild Library. By 1906 most of the standard catalogues had been done, and in that year Dr. Berghoeffer sent a circular to the chief libraries of all kinds in Germany, Switzerland, Austria-Hungary and Luxembourg, and even Holland, asking them to send him three copies of their printed catalogues and lists of additions as issued. Most libraries complied with this request, some sent two copies, and some, where catalogues were out of print, could send none. Endeavour was made to buy copies of all catalogues not received by gift, and so the union catalogue is believed to include nearly all published catalogues of libraries in German speaking Europe. Two copies of each catalogue were, of course, necessary for cutting up. A third has been obtained whenever possible and placed in the bibliographical reference library at the Rothschild Library.

The object of the catalogue is to locate books, and the better to serve this purpose it has been arranged in an unusual way. It is divided into four sequences as follows: 1. The personal section. This is the main section and includes all entries catalogued under an author's name, and anonyma having a personal

name in their titles and being catalogued under those names. 2. Geographical section—including anonyma catalogued under place names. 3. Title section—including all other anonyma which provide subject catch-words in their titles under which they may be catalogued. 4. Chronological section—anonymous material which could not be put in sections 1, 2 or 3. These are arranged in chronological order of publication.

In section 1 entries are arranged without regard to authors' first names but are sorted alphabetically by titles under each surname. This has certain obvious advantages. In compiling the catalogue no time is used in amplifying entries which do not give full first names; and in using it no time has to be spent in amplifying enquiries which do not give these names; and as many enquiries do not give them in full, this saves considerable labour. This second point provided the reason for the arrangement: and in the view of the users of the catalogue results have justified it. It is, however, difficult to believe that the justification is absolute: for, on the one hand, applicants often make mistakes in the wording of titles as well as in the spelling of surnames; and, on the other, a union catalogue is often called upon for bibliographical information, such as on the writings of a particular author, which cannot be answered from a catalogue so arranged.

The catalogue has some $4\frac{1}{2}$ million entries, giving about $5\frac{1}{2}$ million locations, so that it is perhaps larger than the complete union catalogues at the Prussian State Library. It includes everything in the catalogues obtained, foreign as well as German literature, but is, of course, chiefly representative of German literature. Yet although very strong in that, it naturally contains many omissions, since there are no printed catalogues of the Berlin, Munich and Vienna State libraries, and of many other large libraries in German speaking Europe. However, it is continually growing, and until a few years ago included the Berlin Title-lists. It has proved its value as a most useful tool in tracing books. It has been used by the Prussian Bureau and has often traced books which were unrecorded at Berlin and could not be found by enquiries to libraries from Berlin. It is regularly used for enquiries coming to Frankfurt in the regional

system in South-West Germany (see pp. 158-60) and is also used directly by libraries in all parts of Germany and even by foreign libraries. The following statistics¹ give some idea of the extent of this work:—1. Number of questions from libraries direct. 2. Number of these successfully answered. 3. Number of questions from the Prussian Bureau. 4. Number of these successfully answered. 5. Number of questions from the South-West German libraries. 6. Number of these successfully answered. 7. Total queries, excluding column 3. 8. Total successfully answered, excluding column 4.

	1	2	3	4
1925	2,560	1,520 (59·37 %)	2,069	267 (13·0 %)
1926	2,623	1,486 (56·6 %)	779	99 (12·7 %)
1927	2,894	1,896 (65·51 %)	2,445	356 (14·56 %)
1931	9,584	6,287 (65·6 %)	2,008	340 (16·9 %)
1933	3,815	2,528 (66·26 %)	—	—
	5	6	7	8
1925	292	128 (43·83 %)	2,852	1,648
1926	1,740	829 (47·6 %)	4,363	2,315
1927	3,585	1,784 (49·76 %)	6,479	3,680
1931	10,063	6,307 (62·68 %)	19,647	12,594
1933	9,406	6,479 (68·88 %)	13,221	9,007

It must be emphasized that the queries received under 3 were all very difficult cases. They were not in the Prussian Union Catalogue or the Supplementary Catalogue, nor could they be

¹ Supplied by Dr. Kirchner, Librarian of the Rothschild Library.

found by the Prussian Bureau in printed catalogues nor in answer to enquiries. And those received under 5 were also for books not to be found in some other libraries in the South-Western system.

This catalogue has been maintained entirely by the Rothschild library from its endowment funds. Of recent years these have diminished in value and the library has been hard put to it to meet its expenses. The catalogue therefore suffers, as does that at the Palais Mondial, Brussels, from lack of staff to work it, and so serious has this become that in 1931 the library had to request the Prussian Bureau to cease sending applications. In the same year the library imposed a fee of 10 pf. for each request, and this largely accounts for the decrease of applications from libraries since 1931 (column 1 in above table). It is to be hoped that the library may obtain the small funds necessary to keep the catalogue up to date and to work it; and it may be noted here that the expense of building the catalogue has been very small, owing to the Director's careful planning of the work. The Library also has a very large collection of bibliographical reference works, and if it cannot trace a book will put enquirers in touch with likely sources of information.

The Union Catalogue of Incunabula [B. 35, 94-97].

The "Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke" has been prepared by a special commission appointed for the purpose with headquarters at the State Library in Berlin. It is a list of all known incunabula giving locations in libraries all over the world. Volume 1 was published in 1925 and so far six volumes have appeared bringing the catalogue down to the letters "Confessione."

The "Kommission für den Gesamtkatalog der Wiegendrucke" was formed by the Prussian Ministry of Education (Wissenschaft, Kunst und Volksbildung) in 1904, largely through the interest of Friedrich Altoff, head of the ministerial department of "Wissenschaft," who had also done so much for the general Prussian Union Catalogue. It consisted of eight German experts and four foreign, one each from Austria, Denmark, Sweden and Holland.

The first task was to make an inventory of incunabula in all German libraries. This was started at the beginning of 1906 and

finished on April 1st, 1911, and showed that there were 145,484 incunabula (including duplicates) in 676 libraries. For the book trade exhibition at Leipzig in 1914 the Prussian State Library issued a prospectus and some specimen pages of the catalogue as a part of its contribution to that exhibition. This was largely instrumental in gaining the support of Austria and Hungary, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland and the U.S.A. for the catalogue: librarians in these countries undertook to contribute entries for their incunabula. The incunabula of France were already partly listed by Marie Pellechet in the "Catalogue Général des Incunables des Bibliothèques Publiques de France," and a catalogue of those in Italy had been started. The Commission itself sent cataloguers to Great Britain and Ireland, Spain and Portugal, who toured these countries and catalogued incunabula of which no notice had already been published. These cataloguers received much help from librarians they visited, who, with other librarians in these and other countries, subsequently sent further information directly to Berlin, so that the catalogue is an achievement of real international co-operation between librarians, originated and directed from Germany.

Catalogues of Academic Theses and Reports [B. 103, 117].

There are two of these catalogues (1) entitled "Jahresverzeichnis der an den Deutschen Universitäten und Hochschulen erschienenen Schriften," and (2) "Jahresverzeichnis der an den Deutschen Schulanstalten erschienenen Abhandlungen": both are issued from the State Library in Berlin.

The first began in 1885 after a decree from the Prussian Ministry of Education had ordered that a notice of the dissertations and other reports issued by all the Prussian Universities should be issued annually in a union list. The librarian of each university was to send to the State Library, Berlin, a list of all such matter, whether printed or not, and classified on a standard system. The State Library was then to prepare an author index and print the whole, the separate lists being arranged in alphabetical order by the town of each university.

Before the first list was started, the non-Prussian universities signified their willingness to contribute to it, and so the first

list, for the academic year 1885-1886 and published in 1887, included 22 universities in all parts of Germany. There have now been 49 volumes issued, and No. 49 for 1933 published in 1934 includes 24 universities and 24 polytechnics and similar institutions. From Volume 25 for 1909-10 inclusive, each volume has been supplied with a subject as well as an author index. The work is printed in 3 forms (1) in a volume, as noted. Here the paper used is thin and the leaves are printed on one side only, so that the entries may be cut out and pasted on cards, (2) in normal book form, printed on each side of the leaf; (3) on cards.

The second began in 1889, Volume 1 for that year being published in 1890. So far, 28 volumes have been published, the last, Volume 28, covering the period 1916-30, being published in 1931. It is a catalogue of all reports and dissertations of value, produced in higher schools and colleges not included in list (1). As opposed to list (1) the entries in this are printed in one alphabetical sequence by authors, but it is also printed on thin paper of which the reverse of each leaf is blank. There is a subject index and an index of institutions to each volume.

It may also be noticed that the State Library at Berlin published a general catalogue of official publications of the German Reich and States—*Deutsche amtliche Druckschriften*, 1-3, 1927-9—which also appeared in a monthly list in 1928-9. It was discontinued because the list started at the *Deutsche Bücherei* was in a more comprehensive form.

This bibliographical work shows how the State Library has served all Germany, and not only Prussia, since 1885 at least, and has in certain important senses been a National Library.

Other Union Catalogues.

There are several other Union Catalogues in Germany besides those discussed in this chapter. The bibliographies to the *American Union List of Serials* [B. 53] cite 22 German printed union catalogues of periodicals alone which were in existence before 1931. In addition to these a union catalogue of current periodicals is now being prepared by the library of the Berlin Polytechnic (*Bibliothek der Technischen Hochschule, Berlin-Charlottenburg*) which will include the contents of most German

and of some foreign technical libraries. To prepare this list the librarian of the Berlin Polytechnic has obtained the co-operation of 26 libraries of which 2 are in Austria, 1 in Czecho-Slovakia, 1 in Holland and 1 in Switzerland and the remainder in Germany. These have contributed notes of their periodicals which have appeared since 1924, when the G.A.Z. (see pp. 99-100, 147) closed, and those still current which appeared before 1924 if not recorded in the G.A.Z. These entries have been arranged in one sequence and the resultant union catalogue multiplied at the Berlin Polytechnic. From here, copies of this catalogue were issued early in 1933 to numerous libraries in order to obtain location marks and new entries, as was done for the American Union List of Serials and the British World List of Scientific Periodicals. The result should be a union catalogue of periodicals in technical libraries which will be of very great value. *The Deutsche Bücherei* [B. 78, 1092, 110].

This, the "German Library," is not connected with exchange lending but deserves mention because it is, to a certain extent, a national library; it is a centre for the supply of bibliographical information and publishes bibliographies, and it lends in a restricted way.

The library, which is in the Deutscher Platz, Leipzig, C.1, is the creation and property of the German association of book-sellers and publishers—Börsenverein der Deutschen Buchhändler. It was founded in 1911 but the building was not begun until May, 1914, and finished and opened in September, 1916. It aims to collect everything printed in German, no matter where printed, from the beginning of 1913; including books, pamphlets and periodicals in which any material part of the original text is in German.

One of the reasons for the creation of the D.B. was to provide a national library at least for modern German literature; another was to establish a centre for information on, and advertisement of, modern German book-production. The copyright deposit laws vary in the different states and no library receives all German publications through them. And now any legislation which might have compelled German publishers to have given one or more copies of their publications to one or more state libraries

has probably been forestalled by the publishers themselves in the formation of the D.B. to which all publishers have undertaken to give one copy of every book, reserving the right to charge cost price for very expensive books. In 1933 the library received its income from the following sources [B. 109a, p. 162] :—

The German State	177,000 Rm.
The State of Saxony	177,000 Rm.
The City of Leipzig	88,000 Rm.
The Börsenverein	18,000 Rm.
Various (Readers' tickets, etc.) ..	43,000 Rm.
Total	<hr/> 503,000 Rm. <hr/>

The library is also helped by a society of its friends (Gesellschaft der Freunde der Deutschen Bücherei), founded in 1913, and very largely by the Börsenverein in support of the library's bibliographical work. The Börsenverein has also undertaken to meet the cost of all German books which the library has to buy; and the society of its friends, to meet the cost of other books necessary to the library.

The present building has capacity for 1,600,000 volumes and when completed will take 10 millions. There is room for still further expansion so that adequate book capacity is assured for several centuries. It has now about 1,000,000 books and adds 60,000–80,000 a year, about half of which are given by German publishers and half “collected” in various other ways.

The library is primarily for reference only, but lends duplicates and in special cases unique copies. For an admission ticket readers are charged a nominal fee of 1 RM. on payment of which anyone is admitted.

The library sets itself four main tasks :—

1. The collecting of books and organization of the library.
2. The issuing of bibliographical journals.
3. The supply of bibliographical information.
4. The equipment of a reference library of general bibliographical (including non-German) books.

With regard to 2, the library issues daily and weekly lists of all new German publications (Bibliographischer Teil des täglich erscheinenden Börsenblatts für den Deutschen Buchhandel” and

"Wöchentliches Verzeichnis der erschienenen und der vorbereiteten Neuigkeiten des deutschen Buchhandels"). These bibliographies in turn furnish the material for a large number of important bibliographies on special subjects, the compilation of which is greatly assisted and, in many cases, made possible only by the D.B. Thus the most important periodical on German literature, the "*Literarischer Zentralblatt für Deutschland*," now in its 86th year, is edited in the D.B. by some 35 specialists, on the basis of the books and periodicals received in the library. Other special bibliographies such as that on wireless telegraphy ("*Deutsches Rundfunkschriftum*") are edited in the D.B. which sends copies of all of these, at a small charge, to all booksellers, publishers and most libraries in Germany. They are, of course, invaluable tools for members of the book trade, as well as good propaganda for the sale of books, and their issue perhaps repays the Börsenverein for its expenditure on the library. At any rate, it is some repayment, and there is none for legal copyright deposit in state libraries. The D.B. was also the centre for the editing of the "*Minerva-Zeitschrift*" and has been of assistance in other Minerva publications well known in the library world.

With regard to 3, the supply of bibliographical information, the D.B. has made it clear (16. Jahresbericht über die Verwaltung der Deutschen Bücherei. April 1, 1928, bis März 31, 1929, pp. 15-16) that the functions of its Information Bureau are quite distinct from those of the Bureau at the State Library in Berlin. The D.B. can, of course, only do this by insisting that the Berlin office is only to locate books. In fact, that clearly has other bibliographical duties and has a staff and resources for the supply of bibliographical information which are more adequate for general purposes than they are ever likely to be at the D.B. But the D.B. can, of course, rightly claim to be the best authority on modern German books and is well able to deal with such queries as the following taken at random from its files:—

1. Who publish, and what is the price of — (book)?
2. I believe A. has written a book on B. Can you give me the exact title, date, price, etc.?
3. Can you tell me the author of a book with this title —?
4. Can you tell me a good modern book on —?

5. Did C. receive the Nobel Prize for — [book] ?

6. Can you tell me if a book exists with this title — ?

7. Can you tell me if — [periodical] is still being published ?

Most of the queries are of this kind, many of which would be answered in England by any good bookseller, and about 50 are received by post each day, and many others made in person. Some enquiries are for bibliographies. If these are lengthy an estimate of the cost is sent to the enquirer, and, if accepted, the bibliography is made at the D.B. The Bureau often makes use of other institutions in obtaining information ; but never answers requests for information on the whereabouts of books required on loan ; always referring the enquirer to the Berlin Bureau.

The D.B. collects not only literature which appears in the public book trade, but also all books printed privately. The Library's great wealth of private productions suggested the idea that a union catalogue should be made of all such German works to be found in all German libraries. With the co-operation of most of the important libraries in Germany such a catalogue is now being compiled and housed at the D.B.

Notgemeinschaft der Deutschen Wissenschaft [B. 80, 99].

This institution, an emergency society for the assistance of German scholarship and research, was founded in 1920 by the chief German academic societies and institutions, to help the maintenance and development of scientific and scholarly work in Germany during the times of financial difficulty following the War. It is connected with the Ministry of the Interior and receives a grant from the State. It is not only a society for obtaining and providing funds, but also develops co-operation between institutions, including libraries, in order that their own funds and other resources may be used to full advantage, and, by reason of its contact with institutions of all kinds and in all parts of Germany, is best able to judge whether any particular venture in the library world, for example, is for the good or otherwise of German libraries as a whole. It has organized the acquisition of scientific periodicals, arranging by purchase and exchange that practically all periodicals in the first edition of the World List of Scientific Periodicals which were not taken

by any German library, are now taken. It has an enquiry bureau which helps any library to acquire permanently (*not* to borrow) a book in the cheapest way, by exchange or purchase. It obtained grants from the Rockefeller Foundation and other sources and by financial assistance made possible the publication of B. 70 and B. 94. Perhaps its greatest work is the establishment of an exchange service between German libraries and between these and many libraries abroad. It is now established as a permanent institution with the title of "Deutsche Gemeinschaft zur Erhaltung und Forderung der Forschung" with headquarters at Berlin, C.2, Schloss.

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CHAPTER VI

AUSTRIA, HUNGARY, POLAND, CZECHO-SLOVAKIA, RUSSIA

AUSTRIA [B. p. 343]

Austrian libraries are of much the same kind as those of Germany, and the Austrian Library Information Bureau and system of exchange lending have been modelled directly on the German institutions, with which they have always worked in very close touch. Soon after the German Bureau was founded in 1904 it extended its search lists to include Austrian libraries, and since that time co-operation between the two countries has steadily increased. Entries in the Prussian Union Catalogue for books also in the National Library at Vienna have this fact, with the Vienna press-mark, recorded against them. From 1931 the National Library, and from 1932 eight Austrian university and other academic and students' libraries, have contributed to the Berlin title-lists, and many Austrian libraries belong to the German *Leihverkehr*. One result of this has been that these, and other Austrian libraries, have adopted the Prussian cataloguing rules, and also that these libraries have saved the expense of printing lists of additions themselves.

Austrian libraries are peculiarly affected by lack of means. "This country with actually not many more than six million inhabitants has been able to retain about two-thirds of the library material which existed in the old Austria-Hungary with its 56 million inhabitants. Most of this material is centralized in Vienna, which . . . has made this town one of the great library centres of Europe . . . This privileged position has, however, the drawback that the small Austria of to-day has to administer and to a certain degree continue the enormous collections which have been built

up in Vienna from funds flowing in from all parts of the large Hapsburg Empire." [B. 24 : Vol. 5, 1933, 1934. p. 98].

The Bureau. Proposals were made for forming an independent Austrian Bureau by F. Eichler in 1908 [B. 119] and were supported by R. Fick of Berlin in 1909, but nothing was done about it. The Austrian Library Association gave the question formal consideration in 1913 but decided to postpone action in the matter until more propitious times, which, of course, have never come. However, on October 15th, 1920, the Bureau (*Buchernachweisstelle der Österreichischen Bibliotheken*) was founded as a part of the National Library at Vienna. It is housed in that library (Josefsplatz, 1, Vienna, 1), and is ultimately under the control of the General Director of the National Library, and like that library, is entirely supported by the State. At its foundation the staff consisted of one man, Dr. R. Teichl, who managed the bureau single-handed until February, 1930, when a part-time assistant was appointed. The chief functions of the bureau have been given [B. 123. p. 19] as : 1. To bring to light the contents of Austrian libraries and to facilitate access to them. 2. By the union-cataloguing of new additions to promote a systematic division of the purchase of new books among Austrian libraries. 3. To enable any reader to borrow any book required.

By the end of 1920, 83 libraries had undertaken to reply to search lists issued by the Bureau, and 43 had promised copies of their accessions-lists, and now nearly all Austrian libraries of importance are collaborating. The Bureau traces books by issuing enquiries to likely sources in much the same manner as the Berlin Bureau. Applications from outside Vienna are first checked with the catalogue of the National Library ; applications from within the city must be checked by the enquirers both in the catalogue of the National Library and in that of Vienna University Library before they are sent to the Bureau. If they are not found in union catalogues at the Bureau, enquiry cards are made, six in the first instance, for each title, and issued to the three University and three Students' libraries in Austria. Enquiries for books not traced are then sent to the Berlin Bureau, so that enquirers know that search will be made for their books not only through Austria, but, if necessary, through Germany.

Statistics of transactions between the Austrian and German bureaux are given on pp. 150-1. If the book is still not found enquiry cards may be sent to other Austrian libraries. Originally the Bureau compiled Search Lists of which large numbers were issued simultaneously; now lists are only made when, by chance, there happens to be a large number of enquiries for books on the same subject. The Bureau is well-informed about the nature and contents of practically all libraries in Austria, for in 1929 it issued a questionnaire to over 500 libraries in the country, which all supplied considerable information on their resources, and all agreed to co-operate with the Bureau. No library of any importance was omitted from this number, which included not only the state university and town libraries, but those of monasteries (in which Austria is very rich), colleges and schools and even some private collections whose owners had consented to lend their books. The information gained from this questionnaire, subsequently revised, is printed as B. 120. Since an important part of this work is a subject index to special collections in the libraries, the Bureau has in it a useful guide for tracing a book if it is in an Austrian library at all.

In addition, the Bureau also has the resources of the National Library behind it. Here it can see not only the catalogue of that library, but copies of most printed catalogues of Austrian libraries, as well as many other bibliographical works indispensable to its need; and it is also able to get much valuable help from the staff of the library.

The Bureau has no union catalogue comparable with the Prussian Union Catalogue in Berlin: but like the Bureau there it also keeps a record of all enquiries made, whether successfully or not, and this has already furnished it with a valuable guide of the same kind as the Berlin Supplementary Catalogue. Although there is no union catalogue of the complete contents of any group of Austrian libraries, there is a union catalogue of additions to the chief libraries of the country. This was begun in 1920 as one of the first activities of the Bureau and was carried on until the end of 1930 as an author catalogue on cards housed at the Bureau. This catalogue is still maintained, but as from January 1st, 1931, the annual printed list of additions to the National

Library (Zuwachsverzeichnis der Druckschriften der Nationalbibliothek) which had begun in 1923, was changed to a printed Union list of additions to 32 Austrian libraries, including the National Library, from the beginning of 1931 (Oesterreichisches Gesamtzuwachsverzeichnis). In 1923-28 and in 1931 the Austrian publications were marked with an asterisk, making a national bibliography for those years. Unfortunately, since the end of 1932 the printing of these lists has had to be discontinued for financial reasons: but many libraries contribute card entries for their additions to the Bureau, and the University Library of Vienna is able to have a selection of its additions printed in the Government daily, the *Wiener Zeitung*. The financial crisis has also prevented the general introduction of a standard charge of 10 pf. for loans as in the German Leihverkehr. It had been decided to do this, but the matter is now postponed, although attempts are being made now to obtain a reduced cost of postage.

The Bureau has also compiled, between 1923-26, a union list of current periodicals received by over 300 libraries in Austria. This, which contains some 10,000 entries, is in MS. at the Bureau. It is now being revised and brought up to date, and it is hoped that it will be printed.

Enquiries come to the Bureau by post, by telephone, or are made in person. The Bureau makes no charge for services, but practically confines these to the business of tracing the whereabouts of books. It occasionally attempts to give other bibliographical information, but its resources are as yet too limited to undertake much work of this kind. It will, however, make arrangements to have material copied by the photographic apparatus installed in the National Library.

Like the Prussian Bureau, it does not itself arrange the lending of books within the country; but, having traced a book, simply informs the enquirer where it is. Austrian libraries normally only lend for home reading to readers in their own town; books lent through the exchange lending system are only for use in the borrowing library unless special permission for home reading is granted. Cost of postage must be borne by the borrower.

The following are statistics of the Bureau's work as an intermediary in lending between libraries :

		<i>Requests received</i>		<i>Number successfully answered</i>
Oct. 15th, 1920 to Oct. 1st, 1930 ..		3,100	..	2,026(65·35 %)
1931		1,165	..	501(43 %)
1932		511	..	279(54·6 %)
1933		833	..	488(58·58 %)
1934		588	..	344(58·5 %)

Of the 3,100 requests received between 1920-1930 over 1,000 came from Germany and about 50 from other foreign countries. Of the requests in 1933 (1934), 237 (201) were from Germany and 126 (76) of these were supplied from Austria : of the others, 95 (132) were supplied from Austria, 226 (212) from Germany and 1 from Hungary. In 1928 the General Director of the National Library sent a memorandum to the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation proposing that centres for international loans should be established in the chief libraries of each country, and that all requests for international loans should be made between these centres only, and that books should be sent directly between these centres only, not between individual libraries and not through the diplomatic services. The following is a translation of the rules of the Bureau and of the wording of the search cards ; italics are as in the original :—

1. The function of the Bureau is to inform whether *a book which has been sought for in vain* [i.e. by the reader, locally] is to be found in an Austrian or German library.

2. Applications from within Vienna *must* be accompanied by the statement that the books required are not in the National or University libraries of Vienna ; and applications from outside Vienna by a statement that they are not in the enquirer's nearest public library.

3. Questions of a general nature, for books of which particulars of titles are not given, on a particular subject, or by a particular author, cannot at present be entertained. Sometimes enquiry will be made to find out if other copies of a book already traced are to be found in other libraries. The Bureau reserves the right to enquire the purpose of any enquiry made.

4. Author's name or other heading, title and other description of each book are to be given as exactly as possible, and written *clearly in ink*.

5. Items which have not been traced by enquiry to likely sources will be included on search lists which are periodically sent to all libraries connected with the scheme. Normally, enquirers will *only be informed* if their book *is traced*.

6. Requests made to libraries for loans . . . must be accompanied by the information received from the Bureau.

7. No charge is made for the supply of information.

Search cards, addressed to the Bureau, are issued to sources likely to contain the book or books required and bear the following printed notice :—

SEARCH LIST No. 00.

You are asked to be good enough to indicate which books on this list are in your library, to sign the card and return it unstamped. Please underline your conditions for the use of the books :—Use in your library only (private and similar libraries are asked to give hours of opening). For loan only to a public library at the charge and responsibility of the borrower.

Use and conditions of loan as in the "Guide to libraries of Vienna"—by arrangement.

[Space for names of books.]

Date of request. Signature of the library receiving request.

As a further indication of co-operative work in Austria may be noted the following union catalogues of periodicals :—

Grassauer (F) : Generalkatalog der laufenden periodischen Druckschriften an den österreichischen Universitäts und Studienbibliotheken . . . Hrsg. im Auftrage des k.k. Ministeriums für Cultur und Unterricht von der k.k. Universitätsbibliothek in Wien, *etc.* 1898 [Includes 23 libraries].

Vienna : Verzeichnis der in staatlichen Bibliotheken und Wissenschaftlichen Instituten Wien für das laufende Jahr vorhandenen periodischen Publikationen über Kunst . . . Archäologie, *etc.* 1923-4. New ed. 1933.

Mayr (F): Verzeichnis der Zeitschriften und Periodika an Wissenschaftlichen Anstalten Tirols und Vorarlbergs. Innsbruck [1927].

Mayr (F): Verzeichnis der Sozial- und Wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Zeitschriften der Arbeitsgemeinschaft... Bibliotheken Wiens. (Archiv für Bibliographie. Beiheft 16. Linz. 1931.)

HUNGARY

[B. p. 343]

Hungary seems to have had for many years an efficient and progressive library service. In 1913 she had over 10½ million volumes in 7,502 libraries, to serve a country of 109,651 square miles with a population of 18,264,533. These libraries could be roughly divided into four groups:—

1. "Scientific" libraries	...	1,301	7 million volumes
2. "college and school libraries	...	360	2½ " "
3. Public libraries	...	2,026	606,363 "
4. "Agricultural" libraries	...	3,815	477,708 "

Of these about 60 from groups 1 and 2 were state libraries, as were all in group 4—which consisted of small rural libraries founded by the Ministry of Agriculture. Group 1 includes many monastic and other religious libraries in which the country is rich.

By the Trianon Treaty of June, 1920, these figures were drastically reduced. The country now has only 35,866 square miles and a population of 71,515,886 and 3,471 libraries grouped as follows:—

1. "Scientific," college and school	...	1,011
2. Public	...	1,560
3. Agricultural	...	920

Hungary has thus lost well over two-thirds of her territory, nearly two-thirds of her population, and more than half her libraries.

The chief libraries of the present country are the 20 following—
 19 from groups 1 and 2 above, and one, the municipal library of Budapest, from group 3. It is on these that the national system of co-operation is based. Numbers 1–10, 15, 17, 20 are state libraries in Budapest, 12–14 are state libraries in the country. Numbers 11, 16, 18, 19 are possessed by autonomous corporations, 11 and 19 by the University of Budapest, 18 by the Municipality, and 16 by the Protestant Clergy :—

1. M.N. Múzeum Országos Széchenyi Könyvtára. (Library of the Hungarian National Museum.) 602,000 vols. ; 360,000 pamphlets, etc. ; 25,000 MSS.

2. M.N. Múzeum Régiségtára. (Numismatic and archaeological section of the National Museum.)

3. M.N. Múzeum Állattára. (Zoological section of the National Museum.)

4. M.N. Múzeum Ásvány-és őslénytara. (Mineralogical and Paleontological section of the National Museum.)

5. M.N. Múzeum Növénytára. (Botanical section of the National Museum.)

6. M.N. Múzeum Neprajzítára. (Ethnographical section of the National Museum.)

7. Orsz. M. Szépműv. Múzeum. (Hungarian Museum of fine arts.)

8. Orsz. M. Iparműv. Múzeum. (Hungarian Museum of decorative arts.)

9. Országos Levéltár (National Archives). 150,000 vols.

10. M. Tudományos Akadémia Könyvtára. (Academy of Sciences.) 425,000 vols.

11. Pázmány Péter Tudományegyetemi Könyvtára. (University of Budapest Library.) 677,000 vols.

12. Ferenc József Tud.-Egyetem Könyvtára, Szeged. (University of Szeged Library.)

13. Tisza István Tud.-Egyetem Könyvtára, Debrecen. (University of Debrecen Library.)

14. Erzsébet Tud.-Egyletem Könyvtára, Pécs. (University of Pecs Library.)

15. József Műegyetem Könyvtára. (Library of the Polytechnic, Budapest.) 200,000 vols.

16. Ref. Kollégium Nagykönyvtára, Debrecen. (Library of the Reformed College, Debrecen.)

17. Konkoly-Thegi alapítású Asztrofizikai Obszervatorium. (Library of the Astrophysical Observatory.)

18. Varosi Nyilvános Könyvtár. (Municipal Library, Budapest.) 450,600 vols.

19. Pázmány Péter Tud.-Egyetem Orvostudományi Tanártestületének Könyvtára. (Library of the Faculty of Medicine, Budapest University.)

20. M. kir. Közp. Statisztikai Hivatal Könyvtára. (Library of the Central Bureau of Statistics.) 165,000 vols.

Number 18 is by far the biggest Public Library in Hungary. Its stock includes a good deal of fiction, but its collections of non-fiction are very important and considerable. It has 12 branch lending libraries.

In 1897 there was founded a Chief Inspectorate of Museums and Libraries for all public museums and libraries which are administered by communities, municipalities, religious bodies and societies. But this Inspectorate ceased to exist in 1922, its activities being partly undertaken by the Hungarian Libraries Board. By the Act of 1929, xi, the General Director of the National Museum was authorized to inspect public museums and libraries; and by the Act of 1934, viii, the Chief Inspectorate of Public Collections was restored.

Centre of bibliographical co-operation. On January 1st, 1923, Hungary formally subscribed to the convention of Brussels of 1866 for the organization and regulation of the international exchange of official publications. In 1923, in order to fulfil adequately the obligations thus assumed, the Ministry of Education (Minister, Count Kuno Klebelsberg) founded a central bibliographical bureau of the Hungarian State libraries known as the "Hungarian Libraries Board" (Országos Könyvforgalmi és

Bibliografiai Kozpont). This Bureau was founded on proposals made by Dr. I. Pasteiner, Director of Budapest University Library, the largest learned library in the country; and was established in this library with Dr. Pasteiner as its Director.

Originally the Bureau was, therefore, simply a centre to regulate the exchange of official publications, which it did both for outgoing and incoming literature. Copies of all publications issued by the Hungarian Government were sent to the Bureau which forwarded them to the appropriate centres in the 22 countries which sent their official publications to Hungary. One of the first things done by the Bureau was to compile a "List of Hungarian Official and Academic publications," of which copies were sent to the Governments of the 22 countries reciprocating, which indicated on the list the publications or class of publication they wished to receive. The Bureau obtains sufficient copies of each publication listed to meet this demand. All publications sent in exchange by these countries are received at the Bureau, and from there distributed to the appropriate chief state and academic libraries in Hungary.

The work of the Bureau proved so efficient that it soon became extended. Learned societies and private institutions of all kinds which issued publications, and even private individuals both within Hungary and in other countries, came to use the Bureau as an intermediary, sometimes sending addresses for the issue of publications and sometimes leaving the matter to the direction of the Bureau. This could not efficiently distribute a miscellaneous collection of foreign literature unless it were well acquainted with the nature and aims of the chief Hungarian libraries. It therefore naturally extended its scope to become a national library information bureau.

In 1924 the Government ordered that the libraries, Nos. 1-15 and 17 on pp. 183-84, should send to the Bureau notices of their additions since 1920. Four other large libraries, Nos. 16 and 18-20 on p. 184, voluntarily joined this scheme: so that the Bureau has a union catalogue of the additions since 1920 to the 20 chief libraries of Hungary.

The importance of this union catalogue can easily be seen from a view of the libraries which contribute to it. The libraries of

the National Museum and the Central Bureau of Statistics are both "copyright" libraries. The former specializes in foreign literature on Hungary and the latter in political as well as statistical works. The University of Budapest has the finest library of the humanities in the country. The Budapest municipal library is strong in the social sciences, the library of the Polytechnic in scientific and technical works, and the other libraries all specialize as their names imply, and have the finest collections of their kinds in Hungary. The union catalogue therefore covers most branches of knowledge and contains the books available in the chief public libraries. It contains all Hungarian publications, and many of the works published in the Hungarian language outside Hungary; so that it includes a practically complete national bibliography of works published since 1920.

In order to facilitate compilation of the union catalogue the Bureau drew up a list of cataloguing rules which has been adopted by some libraries in the scheme and will probably be adopted by all and by others in Hungary. These rules were printed in 1928 (see p. 188). Each library was given a distinguishing number (as on pp. 183-4), then it copied its catalogue of additions since 1920 on cards of international size, which each bear its number, and sent them to the Bureau. These cards are now regularly sent in on a fixed date each month. At the Bureau they are revised and arranged into one alphabetical sequence by authors.

In 1926-27 this catalogue of additions was printed and issued in monthly parts which were divided into 19 subject divisions, under each of which entries were arranged alphabetically by authors (*A magyar közkönyvtárak gyarapodásának köspondi cimjegyzéke*). It was published in two forms, one as an ordinary pamphlet for general issue, and the other as a pamphlet but with the verso of each leaf left blank. This was for the participating libraries, to provide them with a printed copy of each entry sent in. As the key-number of the library possessing the book was placed against each entry, every library could easily identify its own contributions, and cut them out and paste them on cards or in books or in whatever other form of catalogue it used. Similarly all the entries were cut out and pasted on cards at the

Bureau. This catalogue is of books only ; but an annual union catalogue of periodicals added to these libraries from the beginning of 1929 onwards is similarly published ; and a union catalogue of periodicals in all Hungarian libraries is in contemplation. Since 1928 the Board has been compelled to give up the printing of the catalogue of books on the ground of expense, and has taken up the annual publication of certain special bibliographies of Hungarian literature which appeared between 1901 and 1925 (*A Magyar tudományos irodalom Bibliografája, 1901-1925*) of which 4 parts, Philosophy, Mathematics, Classical Philology and Chemistry, have so far appeared. This series will be complete in 15 main sections, and will form the first part of a projected complete bibliography of Hungarian literature for the period 1901-1925. The Bureau is also collecting a library of bibliographical reference works.

It will be seen that this extension of the Bureau's work arose directly from its original function as the centre for the exchange of official publications. But having gone so far, and become such a centre of information on, and for co-operation among, the chief Hungarian libraries, it was obviously in a position to extend its services. It has therefore undertaken to give assistance, to institutions and to the public, in tracing books, to arrange lending between libraries, and even to give bibliographical information and to arrange for copying work, including photographic reproductions, to be done. A special department has been created for all this work, so that the Bureau is now in two parts : 1. The section for arranging international exchange of Government, academic and other publications. This, the older part and true origin of the Bureau, has a staff of two men and the part-time services of a packer. 2. The section which deals with the compilation and management of the union catalogues and the supply of bibliographical information. This, which arose from the former, is of the same nature as the Bureau in the State Library at Berlin. It has a staff of six. Both sections are controlled by the Director.

It should be noted, that in forming the union catalogue, and this second part of the Bureau, Hungary consciously imitated the achievements of Prussia. The standard cataloguing rules issued

in 1924 and printed in 1928 (*A kösponti címjegyzék katalogizálási szabályai*, pp. 45. Budapest) were directly modelled on the Prussian rules of May 10th, 1899, although these were freely adapted to suit Hungarian conditions. The Bureau gives information free to public and all foreign libraries, and charges 32 filler per title to private individuals.

POLAND

[B. p. 343]

Poland has over 35,000 libraries which may be roughly grouped as : 1. School libraries, 25,400. 2. Public, popular libraries, 8,400. 3. Soldiers' libraries, 1,000. 4. Special libraries, 200.

School libraries existed, chiefly in Galicia, as early as the 11th century; there were several in the 16th (as the Nowodworski High School, Cracow, and the High School in Torun) and they were numerous in the 19th century. Every High School has its own library of serious works as well as fiction, and there are Central High School libraries, mainly on Education, for teachers. But about 23,000 of the school libraries are in elementary schools, more than half of which are owned by private institutions, the remainder by the State : 2,000 are in secondary and higher schools and are nearly all state owned. Most of the school libraries have been founded since the War.

Most (88 per cent) of the public popular libraries are owned by independent social organizations, such as the " Association of Popular Reading Rooms " with 765 libraries. The state owns only 3·4 per cent of public libraries, and local government institutions only 2·7 per cent. The greatest municipal library, that of Warsaw, is maintained entirely by the city. Most of these libraries were founded in the 19th century, and have played a very important part in the development of education. The Soldiers' libraries are owned by the State.

The special libraries include : 1. Church libraries, Chapter libraries in the episcopal towns, monastic and parish libraries. Many of these were founded in the Middle ages. 2. University libraries, of which there are 5 state and 1 Roman Catholic, and the Polytechnic, Agricultural and Commercial High Schools

which have a university standing. The oldest, the famous Jagellonian library in Cracow, was founded in 1364. 3. Foundation libraries, of which the Ossolineum in Lwów (Lemberg) was founded early in the 19th century. 4. Private "scientific" libraries, as the Duke Czartoryski, Cracow, the Count Krasinski and Count Zamojski, Warsaw. These are all open to students. There are 27 libraries with over 100,000 volumes each, including the National Library at Warsaw, founded in 1928, and the University libraries of Warsaw, Cracow, Lwów, Poznań (Posen) and Wilno (Vilna).

A considerable amount of co-operation exists between Polish "learned" libraries. There is a long established practice of interlending, and they also supply each other with bibliographical information and, where possible, photographic copies, upon request. For many years before 1914 there was active lending between the chief libraries of the large towns, and between these and many foreign libraries. A few years ago an arrangement was made whereby enquiry cards issued by any of the chief libraries were circulated, if necessary, to the others. This is now extensively used and is the main organization for interlending. The following description of the system has been kindly supplied by the Jagellonian library :—

"In order to facilitate 'scientific' work and to enable books to be traced as quickly as possible, an inter-library loan enquiry service exists which should always be used before any attempt is made to borrow a book from a foreign library. The procedure is as follows: Every title is written on a special printed slip destined for inter-library search for books. The slip is supplied with a stamp of the enquiring library, which is asked to fill in each title with bibliographical exactness. If the library to which the enquiry has been directed (*a*) does not possess the book, or (*b*) does not lend it for any other reason, or (*c*) cannot lend it because it is on loan at the time, it notes this on the reverse of the slip, writing the name of the library, the date and the current number, and sends it to the next library. The circular enquiry has priority over all others and each library undertakes, if it cannot lend the book, to send the enquiry to the next library on the day of receipt.

"The following libraries participate in the inter-library search for books :—

1. The Jagellonian Library of Cracow.
2. The University Libraries of Lwów, Poznań, Warsaw and Wilno.

"The route in which the enquiries circulate is strictly determined. There being greater collections of German books in the University Library of Poznań and of Russian ones in the University Libraries of Warsaw and Wilno, a special route is used in sending enquiries for books of this kind.

"Some exceptions to the above order are admissible at the request of the enquiring library, which should note this on the slip.

"If the library sends only one of the books enquired for, it notifies the enquiring library that the other enquiries have been sent further. The enquiring library can ask the first library, to which the enquiry has been directed, to notify it at once that it does not possess the book enquired for and that the enquiry has been sent on its way.

"As to the Polish books or those which are likely to be found in the libraries of the Polish Academy of Sciences, Czartoryski Museum in Cracow, Ossolinski Library of Lwow and Krasinski Library of Warsaw, the University Libraries in these towns can send enquiries to those libraries. The above libraries not belonging to the Government do not send answers directly to other libraries, but return them to the University Libraries in these towns for further expedition.

"The enquiring library can stipulate that its enquiry should not be sent on. In this case it will be returned to it.

"If a small library wishes to borrow books from another, it should, as its first step, approach the nearest University library and obtain from that particulars of the inter-library loan enquiry service."

A questionnaire sent in December, 1932, to 74 Polish libraries [B. 130] revealed that 35 of these had lent to over 300 Polish libraries as well as to libraries abroad to the extent shown in the following tables :—

Transactions with other Polish Libraries.

	BOOKS LENT			BOOKS BORROWED		
	<i>MSS.</i>	<i>Printed books</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>MSS.</i>	<i>Printed books</i>	<i>Total</i>
1931	1,040	2,846	3,886	1,122	3,646	4,768
1932	1,338	3,403	4,741	707	3,023	3,730

Transactions with Foreign Libraries.

1931	18	85	103	28	802	830
1932	13	154	167	13	366	379

These statistics are by no means complete since some of the 35 libraries could not give complete figures, and there are other libraries in the country which have borrowed and lent.

Although the service is not centralized, certain libraries are coming to be regarded as centres, viz., the Cracow Jagellonian University Library, and the Warsaw University Library, especially for loans within Poland. The Municipal Library of Warsaw has a Bureau of Bibliographical Information which is primarily intended for its own readers but which does not refuse its services to other libraries. But the centre to which applications from foreign libraries should be addressed is the headquarters of the Polish Library Association (Związek Bibliotekarzy Polskich, Marszałkowska 69 m.5, Warsaw). This acts as a clearing house for all enquiries for books required on loan and for other bibliographical information.

There are no standard conditions for loans : books are lent for periods varying from three weeks to three months. All the libraries which replied to the questionnaire mentioned above agreed that it would be highly desirable to standardize procedure. State libraries send books post free in packages weighing up to two kilos. Other libraries pay full postage and usually recover all of it from the borrower. Loans to foreign libraries can usually be sent duty free.

The following statistics are supplied by the Jagellonian library :—

The Jagellonian Library, Cracow.

Loan transactions with (A) Polish libraries ; (B) Foreign libraries.

A.

	Number of Institutions borrowing and lending	Volumes lent by the Jagellonian	Volumes borrowed by the Jagellonian
1928/29	71	584	558
1929/30	69	641	435
1930/31	76	690	657
1931/32	132	1374	443
1932/33	121	1412	728
1933/34	128	1015	674

B.

1928/29	22	45	283
1929/30	24	49	315
1930/31	18	44	377
1931/32	33	90	379
1932/33	29	105	448
1933/34	35	82	330

Union Catalogues. The Jagellonian Library has compiled a union catalogue of all periodicals in over 100 university, institute, seminar and other special libraries in Cracow; and a similar catalogue exists in Posen. These are being compiled in the large towns in a planned attempt to make a national union catalogue by first compiling regional catalogues and then amalgamating these.

A union catalogue of all books published in the 16th century is being compiled at the National Library, Warsaw, by Dr. K. Piekarski. There are also the bibliographies of K. Estreicher (*Bibliografia Polska*, Vol. 1, etc. 1870, etc.) and T. Wierzbowski (*Bibliographia Polonica*, 3 vols. 1889-94) which give locations for many items.

These are useful tools, but they cover only a part of the field of Polish literature and of foreign periodicals, and as there are few printed catalogues of libraries, most books have to be traced

by enquiry cards or direct enquiries. This has proved to be such a slow and laborious business that librarians are generally agreed on the necessity for a central enquiry bureau and a union catalogue.

It should be noted that direct enquiry is to some extent assisted by agreements for specialization, especially in the purchase of foreign books, which exist between some of the chief learned libraries. Even where no such agreements exist it is a common practice for a librarian to enquire of one or two other libraries before purchasing an expensive book.

The following information on union catalogues has been supplied by the Jagellonian library :—

“The need of a central catalogue of periodicals in Polish ‘scientific’ libraries has been felt for a long time. This need has been particularly acute in post-War years owing to the fact that the War and the consequent currency inflation have caused serious gaps in the lists of periodicals to be found in Polish libraries.

“The need has been felt of accurate mutual information among the libraries regarding the periodicals in their possession, and a means of supplying the deficiencies of the War and post-War years as well as in current subscriptions. In view of this need the majority of the university libraries have undertaken to produce central catalogues of the periodicals to be found in the respective university towns, and one of them, the university library of Poznań, has published a catalogue of the current foreign periodicals in the libraries of Poznań (*Centralny katalog czasopism i wydawnictw ciągłych znajdujących się w bibliotekach poznańskich*. Poznań, 1930).

“This catalogue and the printed catalogues of periodicals issued by the respective university libraries (e.g. the University of Lwów, 1930, the University of Cracow, 1915, the Institute of Engineering of Lwów, 1930, the Polish Academy of Science, Cracow, 1930), together with that of the periodicals belonging to specific branches of science (e.g. the catalogue of the foreign biological periodicals to be found in the libraries of the scientific institutions of Poland, Warszawa, 1925, and the collective catalogue of psychological periodicals and those related to them to be found in Polish libraries, Poznań, 1931) have proved insufficient to eliminate the need of a general Polish catalogue.

"In 1932, when Polish finances were at their lowest ebb; in compliance with the resolution of the III Congress of Polish Librarians, there was published a catalogue of the foreign periodicals subscribed to in that year by the University libraries and the other important 'scientific' libraries which had agreed to take part in this publication.

"The aim of this catalogue was a purely practical one; it was to enable all interested to know what modest range of subscriptions had been maintained, and was to be a useful guide for a subscription policy.

"At the above-mentioned III Congress of Librarians which took place at Wilno in 1932 it was resolved to compile and print a central catalogue of the foreign periodicals to be found in the Polish libraries. This was initiated by the Director of the University library of Poznań, Dr. Wierczyński, who also took in hand the work of publication. This catalogue is to include, if possible, all the Polish 'scientific' libraries (the libraries of universities, of university seminars and of 'scientific' circles) and within these the entire supply of foreign periodicals and permanent publications from the earliest times till the end of 1932. It will comprise only 'scientific' publications. It is to be supplemented every five years. The work has been divided between the university libraries, each of them supervising the gathering of the material in its district, which has been entrusted to workers engaged specially for the purpose (partly unemployed librarians) who have made lists of the periodicals in the different libraries on the spot. This refers principally to the libraries of university institutes, as other 'scientific' libraries have for the most part supplied the necessary material themselves.

"This catalogue is to contain not only full lists of periodicals and of complete volumes of these but it is also to show all existing gaps, as this will facilitate the mutual exchange of duplicates between the different libraries. The entries are made on slips 10 cm. \times 15 cm. and put in alphabetical order. The data on the slips are the following: the title, sub-title, publisher, editor, occasional remarks, place of publication, the holding of the library, the library number, from where it was bought. Each slip is provided with the library stamp.

"The regional material has been assembled in the several districts by June, 1934, and sent to the central editor's office in Poznań. As soon as it has been checked and put in order the editors are to proceed to the printing of the catalogue. This is to be arranged alphabetically and to be provided with a subject index.

"Simultaneously with the preparatory work the task of the continuation of this central catalogue was taken in hand. The respective material is gathered yearly by the university libraries and will remain in their possession up to the time when the supplementary volumes are published, which is to be every five years.

"The funds for this publication are supplied by the Ministry of Education (The National Culture Fund).

"The Jagellonian Library has also stimulated activity for the publication of a central catalogue of Polish periodicals; the gathering of the material was begun in 1929 but has since been temporarily discontinued for lack of funds."

Other important bibliographical publications are :—

1. *Urzędowy wykaz druków wydanych w Rzeczypospolitej Polskiej*. This is the national bibliography. It consists of an official list of books published in Poland and is issued periodically. It is drawn up by the National Library at Warsaw, and in addition to the ordinary issue is also printed on sheets of which the reverse is left blank. Libraries cut out these entries for their catalogues and so the publication exhibits a form of central cataloguing. Author and subject indexes are issued annually.

2. *Wykaz drutów Polskich lub Polski dotyczących wydanych zagranicą*. A periodical list of books in Polish or about Poland printed abroad. This is also drawn up and issued by the National Library at Warsaw.

3. *Index translationum*. 1932. Pologne. This was compiled from 1 and 2 above and issued by the National Library of Warsaw as a free supplement to the *Index translationum* of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation.

CZECHO-SLOVAKIA

[B. p. 343]

The libraries of Czecho-Slovakia have much in common with those of Poland. As in Poland, the present régime of the country dates from 1918, and since that time the State has done a great deal in the field of adult education—indeed Czecho-Slovakia has been called “The land of adult education”—and not least in the provision of libraries. Most of these are small popular libraries serving rural communities and small towns, but large public libraries have been built, as in Prague, where the new municipal library has a capacity for a million books and is up to date in all its fittings. It has an information bureau managed by one full-time assistant, which answers enquiries coming from other libraries as well as from its own readers.

Inter-library Lending. The national central library is the “Veřejná a universitní knihovna (Public and University Library),¹ 190 Klementinum, Prague, 1.” This and all other state libraries lend books to their own readers and to other institutions of standing within the Republic. Books are not sent by post directly to individuals, but if these apply through a state library, a state department or office, a scientific institution, library or museum, or a school, any state library will lend to that institution.

Foreign borrowing and lending is not always centralized. Most Czecho-Slovakian libraries are willing to lend their books and even manuscripts abroad, and this they do in answer to requests direct from foreign libraries as well as those coming through the centre. Ordinary books are sent directly by post, manuscripts and valuable books by the diplomatic service.

By a decree of November 14th, 1929, the Ministry of Education established a Library Information Bureau (Knihovní zpravodajská kancelář) at the Prague University Library, to assist other libraries in tracing books. The Bureau conducts its enquiries by search cards, usually putting only one title on each card. There are few large libraries outside Prague, Brno and Bratislava (in each of which are “Public and University” as well as Municipal libraries) and so, for any specialized book, the

¹ Since June 8th, 1935, called “National (Narodní) and University Library.”

Bureau can reach most likely sources with five or six cards. All co-operating libraries (i.e. all state libraries) are supplied with standard reply cards.

Readers and libraries only use the Bureau when they do not know where a book is ; and readers in Prague must first consult the catalogue of the University Library. The Bureau extends its enquiries to foreign libraries if required, and is the centre to which foreign libraries should apply for books and bibliographical information if they do not know where to obtain these directly. No charge is made for loans either within the country or abroad, but in all cases the full cost of postage must be paid by the borrower.

Union Catalogues. The Bureau keeps a record of enquiries, which, of course, provides a union catalogue of books already traced. Apart from this there is no general union catalogue—although plans for one are now being discussed—but by decree of the Ministry of Education a special section of Prague University Library, called the “National Library” (Narodni knihovna) compiles a current national bibliography. Since 1922 it has published an annual list of all books published in Czecho-Slovakia (Bibliografický katalog Československé republiky). From January 1st, 1929, the entries have also been issued on cards, and from January 1st, 1933, there has also been a weekly list. In 1925 the library issued a list of cataloguing rules for use in state libraries. In 1929 Prague University Library published a union list of foreign periodicals in Czecho-Slovakian libraries (Soupis cizozemských periodik v knihovnách Československé republiky) which is a complete list of foreign “scientific” periodicals in learned libraries of all kinds in the country.

Another special union catalogue is the so-called “New Jungmann.” In 1923, at the 150th anniversary of Josef Jungmann, whose history of Czech literature, 1849, is really the first Czech and Slovak literary bibliography, including everything from the earliest manuscripts to books published in 1846, the Ministry of Education organized a “Commission for the Bibliographical Compilation of Czecho-Slovakian Printed Books until 1800” to complete and correct Jungmann’s work. In ten years some 15,000 new titles were collected and the first part of this

bibliography (called "The New Jungmann") was published in 1925. This was of incunabula; the second and main part is now ready for publication, the manuscript (in card form) being available in the Parliament Library, whose director is president of the Commission. The work will not only be well indexed but will give locations, where possible, of each item in Czecho-Slovakian libraries. It is therefore a national union catalogue of national books.

RUSSIA (U.S.S.R.)

[B. p. 343]

Since the Revolution, libraries have been developed to such an extent that there are now some 35,000 in the Union in addition to about 250,000 small travelling libraries. The former may be roughly divided into five groups: first, the public libraries, which are divided into town libraries (central and regional) and district (county) libraries, under the supervision of the Commissariats for Education of the various republics. The central town and county public libraries direct the work of the lower library units. Second, the libraries organized by the trade-unions in factories and workers' clubs, including workers' libraries and special libraries for engineers and technicians. Third, "Special" libraries, as (a) libraries connected with research institutes and state offices, and (b) University and college libraries. These are under the supervision of the Commissariat to which the institution or school belongs. Fourth, elementary and secondary school libraries and children's libraries under the supervision of the Commissariat of Education. Fifth, the Red army libraries. Lastly there are the great state libraries, as the public libraries of Leningrad and Moscow, each with over five million books, that of the Academy of Science with over four million, the Ukranian Academy of Science with over three million, the Scientific Library of Odessa with over two million and the public library of Nizhni-Novgorod with over one million, and the university libraries, as of these towns and in Tomsk and Kazan. There are numerous libraries attached to the "Houses of Culture" and in clubs, farms, tractor-stations and institutions of all kinds. The public

libraries are becoming well organized. "Many libraries are equipped with excellent information bureaux. A special staff is employed for this work, and duties include (1) the answering of personal and postal inquiries, (2) the filing of slips giving details of each inquiry received, (3) the compilation of a permanent card catalogue showing sources of information obtained in the answering of queries" [B. 133, p. 332]. The information bureau at the Public (Lenin) Library, Moscow, dealt with 109 queries in 1923 and 10,452 in 1928. In 1930 the number dropped to 9,829 and in 1933 to 5,806 owing to the development of information bureaux in other libraries. The bureau of the Saltikov-Tshedrin memorial library in Leningrad dealt with 18,000 queries in 1930 and with 36,500 in 1933.

By a decree dated November 20th, 1933, of the Sovnarkom Council of People's Commissars, 37 libraries receive by legal deposit a copy of every book (having two or more pages), periodical, newspaper, map, chart and item of music published in the U.S.S.R. These libraries include the state libraries of Moscow and Leningrad, the Central republican libraries, and several regional and university libraries. Four of them (Lenin Memorial Library, Moscow; the Saltikov-Tshedrin library, Leningrad; the Library of the Academy of Science, and the Korolenko memorial library, Kharkov) receive two copies of everything published in the U.S.S.R. But since so many of the publications are in the nature of scientific and industrial text-books, these libraries often have to buy many extra copies.

Central cataloguing was started by the Central Catalogue Bureau of the R.S.F.S.R. Commissariat for Education in 1925 and is still carried on. The Bureau is now called the "Editorial Office of Central Cataloguing" (Redaktsia Centralnoj Katalogizatsij) and since 1930 has been affiliated to the Bibliographical Institute of the State Publishing Board (Kritiko-Bibliograficheskij Institut OGIZ'a).

The R.C.K. issues to public libraries printed cards with descriptive annotations. Since 1920 there have been eight State Book Chambers which are the centres of bibliographical work in the Union. The main object of each is to be a National Bibliographical Centre for its Republic and to register its whole

book-production. They issue (usually weekly) lists of new books published in their States; and printed, un-annotated, cards, intended for special libraries, for all books newly published in the U.S.S.R. are issued by the State Central Book Chamber. The Book Chambers will supply libraries not only with information on current Russian literature, but also with general bibliographical information (see B. 132a).

Various union catalogues have been compiled, as that of foreign periodicals in 124 Moscow libraries published in 1930 by the Lenin Library in Moscow. This comprised periodicals issued between 1924 and 1928 and contained 6,004 entries. A second series, for periodicals which appeared between 1928 and 1932, is in preparation. The Lenin Library is also preparing a union catalogue of foreign scientific books in Moscow, especially of medical, technical and agricultural literature. The Central Town library of Leningrad has compiled a union card catalogue of all non-fiction books in 20 district libraries in Leningrad: this is mainly for the use of readers in Public Libraries. The State Library in Leningrad has compiled two union catalogues of periodicals in Leningrad libraries, one covering the period 1914-28 and the other 1928-32. It has also published a union catalogue of foreign books issued between 1920-1924, in 1926; a report on the State Libraries in Western Europe, 1926, and on the Scientific Libraries of Leningrad, 1928.

As far as there is any one centre for library co-operation it is the Institute of Library Science which was affiliated to the Lenin Memorial Library, Moscow, 6, until May, 1934, but is now an independent institution at Moscow 19, Mohovaja, 6; and as far as there is an organized system for interlending it is best described in the rules for inter-library loans issued by the People's Commissariat for Public Instruction on March 8th, 1934, and of which the following is a translation¹ :—

“1. In order to promote education generally and to give a better service to their readers in particular, libraries should lend books to, and borrow books from, other libraries. New

Supplied by the Institute of Library Science.

industrial and agricultural centres especially should take advantage of this.

"2. The list of libraries lending books by inter-library loans is compiled by the Library Board of the Narkompros (the People's Commissariat for Public Instruction).

"3. This list includes all libraries of the R.S.F.S.R.—special, popular libraries of the political section of the tractor-stations, and libraries of the Soviet farms having a librarian to be responsible for the care of books received on terms of inter-library loan.

"*Note.* (1) In the political section of a tractor-station or in a Soviet farm where there is no permanent librarian the manager may appoint a special person to be responsible for books borrowed on inter-library loan. (2) Public libraries have the right to borrow books only from libraries in their own region or district. Special, state, republic and regional libraries can borrow books from any district. Applications from public libraries for books unobtainable in their own town, may be sent to the central, district, or regional library which will circulate these applications among the different special or public libraries of the region.

"4. Libraries can receive for temporary use books and periodicals (other than current numbers) as well as other printed material in Russian and foreign languages and languages of the nationalities within the U.S.S.R.

"5. The popular political, technical, agricultural, and similar literature which should be available in any good public library, bibliographical reference books, newspapers, art literature, standard text-books and all rare books, do not normally come within the scope of inter-library loans: but exceptions may be made of books needed by scholars engaged in scientific investigation.

"6. No library may lend to another more than 20 books at one time. Any library may always refuse the loan of any book or books required by its own readers.

"7. Books borrowed from another library may be issued for home reading, but the individual must sign a special receipt for books so borrowed.

"8. The borrowing library is obliged to replace any book lost or damaged, and if that is impossible, to pay to the lending library the equivalent of its value. The borrowing library is also responsible for the proper use and due return of books, etc.

"9. Books may normally be lent for one month to libraries in the same town as the lending library. They may be lent for from one to two months to other libraries. If a borrowing library keeps a book without due cause above the specified time, the lending library may refuse to lend to it in future.

"10. Agreements on inter-library loans are usually concluded between the chief librarians, and the person immediately responsible for the books at the borrowing library is indicated in the agreement. In tractor-stations and Soviet farms where there is no librarian agreements may be concluded by the manager or his deputy.

"11. Applications for books must bear the stamp of the library or of the institution to which the library belongs, and must be signed by the person responsible in the borrowing library for inter-library loans.

"12. All applications should give the following particulars: author, title, edition, date, place of publication, publisher.

"*Note.*—Public and district libraries, and no others, may send in applications in which the exact title is not known, and may apply for books on a subject, provided that an exact description of the subject, the kind of literature required, and the name of the borrower, are given.

"13. Books are sent by insured (up to 500 roubles) parcel post, and travel carriage free by a decree of the People's Commissariat for Communication of December 14th, 1933, on the free transport of books sent on inter-library loan. Books received on inter-library loan are to be returned in the same wrapping as they were received and with the same insurance price."

Rules for inter-library loan had been previously issued by this Commissariat in March, 1928, so that such loans had been officially fostered since that date.

To supplement the view given by the above rules may be

taken the rules of the State Public Library (Gosudarstvennaya Publitsnaya Biblioteka) in Leningrad, which received 1,235 enquiries from other libraries in 1931 and 1,657 in 1932. Its regulations for inter-library loans are as follows :—

“All changes of personnel, address, constitution, etc. [in borrowing libraries], must be notified to the State Public Library at once.

“The aims of the service are for the State Library to supply to an institution literature required for the study of any legitimate productive plan in which that institution, and not any private individual, is engaged. For instance, French books on Buddhism would be refused to the Institute of Milk Production; books on the history of the silhouette in England would not be lent to the Co-operative Institute, etc.

“Institutions must fill in their applications on the regulation official forms, using a separate form for each work. No lists will be accepted. Applications must be written legibly and in ink. Abbreviations of names of authors and titles of books are not allowed. Similarly, abbreviations of titles of periodical publications, e.g. ‘Izv. VSORGO, 1927,’ or ‘D.U., 1931,’ or ‘A.A., 1930,’ are prohibited. On submitting an application for a periodical publication, it is essential to fill in a separate form for each annual volume. The loan headquarters does not hold itself responsible for unsatisfactory telephone communications in respect of enquiries. It is also necessary to point out that the inter-library loan deals only with applications for fully defined and bibliographically detailed books; thus, all requests for literature on a particular question or subject must be forwarded to the Consultative Bibliographical Section, which will recommend specific books on that question or subject. Any requests such as, e.g., ‘Morocco’ or ‘Educational plans and programmes of secondary schools in Tsarist Russia’ must be considered as having been sent in error to the Inter-library loan. In view of the limited staff and apparatus, the loan headquarters will deal on the same day with not more than two urgent requests from any one institution.

"The State Library deals with requests from the Inter-library Loan between the hours of 2-4 p.m. of the day following the application. In the event, however, of a request requiring special or detailed information, a delay of from 1-2 days may be necessitated. Prior to sending a message in person to the State Library, it is advisable to notify that by telephone of the proposed visit.

"Should an institution not claim books applied for within 10 days, the State Library will consider the request to be null and void, and the books will accordingly be placed back again on the shelves.

"Any messenger or employee possessing the necessary authority may sign receipts and receive books.

"Institutions borrowing books from the State Library must ensure due care being taken of them by the use of oiled paper or other satisfactory packing, in order to avoid any danger of damage from exposure.

"No library may have in its possession from another library more than 25 titles in 65 volumes on loan simultaneously. This quantity may be augmented only at the discretion of the service department.

"The time allowed for reading is one month. After expiry of this period, the State Library is entitled to grant a further period of one month. On expiry of the second month, however, the State Library withdraws all privileges until settlement of the matter. After settlement, privileges may continue as previously.

"In urgent cases, the time allowed for reading may be extended for a further period of two weeks, providing the book is not required by another reader, but it is obligatory that the book appear first of all on the shelves of the Loan institution.

"Books borrowed from the State Library may not be taken home. Any infringement of this rule implies exclusion from the Loan.

"In the case of damage to a State Library book, the establishment withdraws privileges and will take measures to ensure a duplicate copy being supplied to the library.

"In the case of repeated infringement of rules, prolonged

disregard of responsibility and careless treatment of books, the privileges of membership may be withdrawn."

It is noteworthy that while inter-lending is strongly encouraged, everything has been done to protect it from abuse. Loans can only be requested for a serious purpose, full information must be given and regulation application forms used. All books likely to be needed within a library are excluded from the service and any library may refuse the loan of any book required by its own readers.

The importance of the Library Associations must also not be overlooked: for in addition to the above mentioned organization, co-ordination of library work in the U.S.S.R. is also effected through 10 Library Associations. These are organized on the principle of specialization; so, for example, there are associations of libraries of political sciences, of agricultural libraries, of medical libraries, and so on. These are all sections of the Moscow Association of Special Libraries (Moscow 19, Mohovaja, 3) affiliated to the Lenin Memorial Library. There are other Library Associations in several other towns of the U.S.S.R.

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CHAPTER VII

DENMARK, SWEDEN, NORWAY, FINLAND

DENMARK

[B. P. 344]

As in most countries, the library system in Denmark can be roughly divided into (1) State and Academic, (2) Public, (3) Special. The chief in group (1) are the Royal and University libraries in Copenhagen and the University library in Aarhus. These are all state supported and they are the largest and most important libraries in the country. The public libraries are very numerous and form perhaps the best national system of their kind. Special libraries are many and varied and are nearly all in Copenhagen or Aarhus.

The three libraries in group (1) all have the right of legal deposit, and are all open to the general public. The Royal library in Copenhagen and the State and University library in Aarhus receive copies of all Danish books; the University library, Copenhagen, received all until 1927, and since then it receives those for which it asks, i.e. books on the sciences and medicine. The Royal and University libraries in Copenhagen stand, in a sense, apart from and above the other libraries in the country. They specialize in foreign literature so as to complement each other, the Royal Library in the humanities and the University in the sciences, an arrangement carried on systematically since 1925. They are mainly for scholars and other advanced workers, and since most of these live in Copenhagen, the service of these libraries is chiefly to residents in that city. It must be remembered that there are few cities in Denmark. The total population is $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions and of these 56 per cent live in rural areas. The population of Copenhagen is 750,000; that of Denmark's second city, Aarhus, is only 85,000. But

both the Royal and Copenhagen University libraries lend, not only to their own readers, but to other libraries. They do this chiefly to the other state and to some special and public libraries of standing; they do not lend to smaller public libraries unless it is shown that the book cannot be obtained in any other way. The Royal Library has compiled and published annually since 1901 a union catalogue of foreign books added to the chief state libraries in the country (*Katalog over erhvervelser af nyere udenlandsk litteratur ved statens offentlige Biblioteker*). It originally issued a short list of rules to these libraries for the compilation of this catalogue. Each library sends to the Royal Library, usually in one batch in January of each year, cards containing entries for all its foreign books acquired during the preceding year. Some libraries send their entries on two occasions. The material is edited at the Royal Library and the catalogue published from there annually in August for additions received in the previous year. There are now 40 libraries contributing to the catalogue, which is classified, and since 1927 has been equipped with an author index. Thus the Royal Library forms one centre of co-operation between Danish libraries. It is the main centre for interlending between the chief state and special libraries of the country, from which it receives applications direct. The public libraries have their own centre, but when this is unable to trace a book it often applies to the Royal Library, so that this also does serve the public libraries when necessary.

The Public Libraries.

The history of the Danish public libraries goes back to the end of the 18th century, but the development of the present extensive system began in 1893 with the work of A. S. Steenberg and was furthered by the "librarian of the Royal Library, H. O. Lange, who in 1909 . . . said: 'The Library system in . . . Denmark should form an organically connected whole, which begins with the school libraries and comprises local reading rooms with reference libraries, travelling libraries, as well as larger libraries centrally located for the larger districts, but also in close connection with these libraries for research work.'"

[B. 12 p. 77]. Lange proposed that there should be one of these central libraries for each county, situated in the county capital and acting as the public library for that town. Legislation which made the formation of central libraries possible was passed on March 5th, 1920, amended on May 1st, 1923, and on March 31st, 1931.

There are now 846 public libraries in Denmark, of which 80 are city libraries. All these are supported by their communities, and, after they have reached a certain standard, also receive a contribution from the State in proportion to the funds provided locally. Twenty-nine are central libraries, that is, they not only serve their own local community but lend to any other public library within their district. For this they receive an additional grant from the State. The first two were founded in 1914 and now every district in Denmark is served by a central library. There is no compulsion in the Danish library law; since the Act of 1931 "it is now as formerly for the local community . . . to decide whether it wants to establish a library or not; neither can any claims be made on a library which does not solicit State support . . . The State contributes to public libraries on certain conditions when the local initiative has assured its establishment and management." [B. 136 p. 190-1]. So, for example, the Central Libraries come into existence by their own initiative. A library applies to the State Inspectorate of Public Libraries for recognition as a Central Library and for a state grant for the purpose, undertaking, on its side, to lend books to other libraries in its area. If the State Inspectorate considers that it is the most suitable library in the district for the purpose, it recommends to the Ministry of Education that it shall be appointed a Central Library. The Ministry will accept the recommendation and make the appointment if it has sufficient money for the necessary grants.

Public libraries receiving a state grant and subject to state inspection obtain a discount of 15 per cent in buying Danish books in print.

The public library of Copenhagen receives over four-fifths of its income from the city and the remainder from the State. It considers that its chief duty is to serve the city (which

contains nearly a quarter of the inhabitants of Denmark) and only lends books outside Copenhagen in special circumstances—chiefly to officials, and foreign books and books unobtainable elsewhere. It has fifteen branches and a union catalogue of these and of the central library at the latter. A reader in Copenhagen is well catered for. He can be sure of seeing any Danish book at either the Royal or University libraries, and most of the foreign books in the country will be in a library somewhere in the city, and will be indexed in the annual *Accessions Katalog*.

A reader outside Copenhagen can use his local public library in the first instance. If this cannot supply his book, he can apply through this library to the district central library, which will supply the book if it can, the borrower refunding the cost of postage, or collecting the book himself. The central library supplies any kind of book, including fiction, but it will not pass on to other libraries requests for Danish fiction. If it does not have a non-fiction or foreign fiction book required, it forwards the enquiry to any other library likely to be able to supply it, and in particular, to the State and University Library at Aarhus, which is a national lending library, and acts as the national centre for lending to public libraries and other libraries outside Copenhagen. The library at Aarhus was founded as a state library only in 1902, and since that time has received a copy of all Danish books by legal deposit. It has also published annually a union catalogue of additions of foreign books to its own and the other chief libraries (11 in 1930) of Aarhus (*Aarskatalog fortegnelse over erhvervelser af nyere udenlandsk litteratur ved statsbiblioteket og andre offentlige institutioner i Aarhus*); but this ceased publication in 1931 since it was incorporated from that year onwards in the similar catalogue issued from the Royal Library (see p. 207). In 1928 a University was experimentally formed at Aarhus and was given the use of the State Library there which is now called the State and University Library. This in no way restricts the use of the library to the general public. The library lends anything except Danish fiction to any state or public library outside Copenhagen. If a reader has no local library (and one third of the Danish parishes have none) he may apply directly to the

nearest central library or to the State and University Library at Aarhus. However applications come, the Aarhus library itself pays the postage of books sent on loan. The borrowing library, or individual, must, of course, pay the return postage, but is not asked to refund that paid at Aarhus. The same holds for books sent by central libraries to applicants who are registered readers within their districts. In all other cases borrowers are expected to refund the full postage on books sent from libraries. This procedure exhibits a common form of restricted regional co-operation noted on p. 37. The central library does not usually forward an application to another library without first asking the enquirer if he wishes this to be done; and it very rarely makes enquiry for the book to other libraries in its region. This is partly because most of the other libraries will be very small, and all will be unlikely to contain any book not in the central library; and partly because the principle is not to draw on small libraries in the area but to regard their stocks as working collections wanted locally, and the stocks of the large central libraries as the proper sources for general loans. Should Aarhus be unable to supply the book, it returns the application to the central library which may now send it to the Royal or University libraries in Copenhagen or, for a foreign book, to any library recorded in the Accessions-Katalog as possessing it.

If the book is still unobtained, or even before all these resources have been tried, any public or state library may apply for it to the Public Library Inspectorate (Statens Bibliotekstilsyn, Skt. Pederstrade 19), Copenhagen. This is the office of the State control of the public libraries in so far as the State does control them, i.e. the State Director of Libraries and a Library Council of 12 which computes and distributes state grants to libraries and organizes the training of librarians. It also advises the Ministry of Education on all matters concerning public libraries. But the office also has an Information Bureau which serves for Danish libraries as the Bureau at the State Library in Berlin for those of Germany or that of the National Central Library for those of Great Britain.

The Inspectorate was founded in 1920, although an advisory body had existed before. For some time there was considerable discussion as to whether the Information Bureau should be

established at the Inspectorate or elsewhere. The report of 1927 [B. 138] recommended that it should be at the Inspectorate, as it is, and there are strong reasons why this should be so. In the first place no library in Copenhagen wished to have it. The Royal and University libraries have as much as they can do to serve readers in Copenhagen and other scholarly libraries, and considered, probably with good reason, that their proper functions would be seriously injured if they assumed, in addition, information and lending service to all the public libraries of the country. The Public Library of the city also has more than it can cope with to meet local demands; and cannot therefore take a prominent part in the general lending between public libraries. So that of these, which at first sight might seem the best places for the Bureau, none is really suitable for the purpose, and none wished to have it. The only other public library centre in Copenhagen is the Inspectorate; and as this is the place to which public libraries naturally turn for professional information, this made a further ground for establishing the Bureau there. The great drawback is that the Inspectorate has no general library. It has a small, but growing, library of general bibliography and on library matters. This forms its own reference library, but books from it are also lent.

Since the main central lending library for the public libraries is in Aarhus, the Information Bureau might have been established in the library, but it is undoubtedly best that it should be in the capital; and as things are, the State Inspectorate is the best place for it there, at present. It may always prove to be the best place; but although from there it has fairly easy access to the Royal and University and the other libraries in the city, there is no doubt whatever that such a Bureau is best placed in a large general library.

The Bureau is compiling a union list of foreign books in Danish libraries made up of (1) the entries in the printed Accessions Katalogs issued from the Royal Library and from Aarhus, from 1901 to date. These are cut out and pasted on cards and sorted in one alphabetical order. This work is nearly complete. And (2) entries on cards for the foreign books in the 29 central

public libraries (which are not in the Accessions-Katalogs). These libraries send in to the Bureau copies of their entries for foreign books, sometimes on cards, sometimes on lists; they are normalized at the Bureau and sorted into one sequence with the entries from the Accessions-Katalogs.

This is one of the chief tools for tracing books. Another is a record of all previous applications both of books found (about 75 per cent) and of those not found, arranged in alphabetical order; and a third is the collection of printed library catalogues in the Bureau's library, but there are few good modern printed catalogues of Danish libraries. With all these the Bureau is able to trace most of the books for which it is asked, and when these sources fail it makes direct application to special libraries likely to contain the book. The important special libraries are comparatively few and are mostly in Copenhagen or Aarhus. There is a good deal of specialization in the State and public libraries apart from collections on local affairs. The specialization in the Royal and University and Bureau libraries in Copenhagen has been noted. The State and University Library, Aarhus, has special collections on missions and music, Esbjerg Central library has a collection on fishing, and the Central Library at Silkeborg a special collection of foreign fiction. This latter is a true co-operative effort, Silkeborg itself obtains what foreign fiction it can, and the other central libraries do not buy many books of this kind, but what they do buy or receive by gift they present to Silkeborg. Silkeborg lends foreign fiction to other central libraries not only in single volumes but in small quantities of about 20 volumes at a time.

The Bureau does another valuable bibliographical work in preparing and publishing annually a subject index to some 225 Danish and other Norse periodicals—*Dansk Tidsskrift-Index*. Copenhagen. 1, *etc.* 1915, *etc.*

The above systems of interlending and centres are used by the special libraries as well as the state and public libraries; but some of the special libraries also have an association of their own and co-operate for interlending. Their centre is at the *Industriforeningens Bibliotek* (Vesterbrogade 1, Copenhagen, v.) where there is a union card catalogue started in 1925 of periodicals

taken by 20 special libraries since 1900. The various libraries themselves contribute their entries together with notices of additions and withdrawals, and these are edited and arranged at the Industriforeningens Bibliotek. The libraries concerned lend periodicals and books not only to each other but also to other Danish libraries. [See B. 190, 1927, pp. 62-3].

The above account has shown that the co-operative systems in Denmark may be roughly divided (1) for Copenhagen and learned libraries generally, with unofficial centres at the Royal and University libraries, Copenhagen, (2) for all Denmark outside Copenhagen and especially for the Public Libraries, based on a system of central libraries, a form of regional co-operation, and with a lending centre in the State and University Library at Aarhus. The national centre at the State Inspectorate in Copenhagen is primarily for this second group, but serves both. There is a further system between some special libraries.

The keynote of the Danish library system is the activity of co-operation between libraries, and distinction between the above groups must not be emphasized since all libraries are willing to lend to any other, actual practice being guided by expediency.

Danish libraries are also willing to lend books abroad. Books so lent normally are only for use in the borrowing library. For books lent between Denmark and Sweden the lending library does not recover the cost of postage. In borrowing from abroad, the large state and special libraries usually make direct applications to foreign centres or libraries, but the Public Libraries send their applications through the State Inspectorate at Copenhagen, and it would probably be best if all such applications were centralized there. The Inspectorate does not send an enquiry abroad unless specially asked to do so.

The extent of inter-library lending is indicated by the following figures:—*The State Library Inspectorate, Copenhagen*.¹

1. Enquiries received from Danish libraries. 2*a*. Number of these satisfied. 2*b*. From within Denmark. 2*c*. From abroad. A few requests are received from foreign libraries but no statistics of these have been kept.

¹ Information supplied by the State Library Inspectorate.

	1	2a	2b	2c
1926 (6 months)	468	332	308	27
1927-8	1,357	1,025	—	—
1929	1,915	1,378	1,145	233
1930	2,161	1,641	1,469	172
1931	2,935	2,216	2,012	204
1932	4,330	3,145	2,897	251
1933	4,791	3,600	—	—

*The Royal Library, Copenhagen.*¹

1. Enquiries received from all Danish libraries and individuals including those within Copenhagen. 2. Number of these satisfied. 3. Packages sent by post. 4. Enquiries made to other Danish libraries. 5. Number satisfied. 6. Number of books lent to foreign libraries. 7. Enquiries made to foreign libraries. 8. Number of books borrowed from foreign libraries.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1929-30	32,058	29,971	1,608	—	—	—	—	—
1930-1	33,688	30,348	1,635	—	—	—	—	—
1931-2	33,520	30,726	1,549	—	—	—	—	—
1932-3	35,657	33,905	1,861	62	61	410	227	180
1933-4	34,156	31,015	1,710	77	76	232	257	195

In addition the Royal Library lent 162 manuscripts to Danish libraries in the year 1932-3 and 111 in 1933-4, and 60 and 65 to foreign libraries in those years respectively.

*The University Library, Copenhagen.*²

1. Number of books lent to individuals and libraries both within Denmark and abroad. 2. Enquiries made to foreign libraries. 3. Books borrowed from foreign libraries.

¹ Information supplied by Dr. C. S. Petersen, Director of the Royal Library.

² Information supplied by Dr. Svend Dahl, Director of the Library.

			1	2	3
1925	24,905	—	—
1926	24,359	40	35
1927	26,858	75	65
1928	25,460	78	67
1929	23,388	112	100
1930	22,298	172	153
1931	22,125	126	108
1932	23,607	175	161
1933	24,688	130	116

*The State and University Library, Aarhus.*¹

1. Books lent to all Danish libraries, and to individuals outside Aarhus. 2. Enquiries made to other Danish libraries. 3. Number satisfied. 4. Enquiries made to foreign libraries. 5. Number satisfied.

			1	2	3	4	5
1925	43,627	—	—	—	—
1926	44,194	—	—	—	—
1927	47,067	—	—	—	—
1928	44,827	—	—	—	—
1929	42,017	—	—	—	—
1930	41,359	—	—	—	—
1931	42,000	447	340	92	73
1932	42,229	598	493	77	66
1933	38,980	576	459	66	50

*The Industriforeningens Bibliotek, Copenhagen.*²

This library is cited merely as an example of a special library: some others, as perhaps, the Library of the "Agricultural High-School," could show as many, or even more, issues.

1. Enquiries received from Danish libraries. 2. Number of these satisfied (i.e. books lent). 3. Enquiries made to other Danish libraries. 4. Number satisfied (i.e. books borrowed).

¹ Information supplied by Dr. V. Grundtvig, Director of the Library.

² Information supplied by Dr. O. Thyregod, Director of the Library.

5. Enquiries received from abroad. 6. Number of these satisfied. 7. Enquiries made to foreign libraries. 8. Number satisfied.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1925	179	154	19	11	—	—	—	—
1926	264	248	37	23	—	—	—	—
1927	346	318	35	28	—	—	20	17
1928	401	387	29	24	—	—	24	21
1929	463	444	42	32	—	—	16	12
1930	404	388	49	38	6	6	17	14
1931	433	429	53	47	5	5	21	17
1932	431	423	60	51	9	8	30	28
1933	542	528	72	69	11	11	44	43

These figures do not include loans made directly to individuals in Copenhagen or in other parts of Denmark—on an average about 50,000 loans each year—but they do include many loans made to Public Libraries through the Bureau at the State Library Inspectorate.

SWEDEN

[B. p. 344]

The Scandinavian countries are, of course, similar in many things; in language, culture, customs and social organization, and in libraries. Sweden has a population of over six millions and although the proportion employed in agricultural work is slowly decreasing it is still about half the total. The three largest towns are Stockholm with about 550,000 inhabitants, Göteborg (Gothenburg) with nearly 300,000, and Malmö with 140,000: there are several towns not much smaller, so that the population is not so centralized as in Denmark. The oldest and largest libraries are to be found in the state and academic group of which the Royal Library at Stockholm may be regarded as the central institution, although the University Library at Uppsala is larger. Each of these libraries has over 750,000 volumes. The University of Lund has a library of about 400,000 volumes. These three are the chief general learned libraries in Sweden and they are all state supported and all have

the right of legal deposit. After these, the town library of Göteborg is the greatest learned library in Sweden. It was founded in 1890 and has nearly the same functions as have the libraries mentioned above.

The special libraries are fairly numerous and important, and, although most of them are in Stockholm, they are more scattered than in Denmark. The public libraries date from the 1830's, and by 1868 there were 1,437 parish libraries in existence. In 1905 the public libraries were first given state grants, and about that time many municipal libraries were formed. There are now about 100 municipal public libraries, 1,200 rural public libraries, 1,530 school libraries, 60 hospital libraries and 4,270 libraries (or rather, small collections of books) for study circles organized by educational associations. All these receive some state support, the municipal town and rural libraries receiving, as in Denmark, a grant from the state proportionate to that provided by the locality: and all libraries receiving state support are entitled to purchase Swedish books in print at a discount of 20 per cent. The chief library legislation are the acts of 1905, 1912, 1914, 1920 and 1930. The act of 1912 placed the public and school libraries under the supervision of a Library Commission, *Bibliotekskon-sulenterna i Skolöverstyrelsen*, which is a department of the Ministry of Education and consists of three library advisers. It acts in an advisory capacity concerning all public and school libraries much as the State Library Inspectorate at Copenhagen does for Danish libraries. It assesses, recommends and distributes the state grants to these libraries, edits annotated catalogues as guides in book selection and arranges short courses of training for librarians, but unlike the office at Copenhagen it compiles no union catalogue and does not act as a clearing house for effecting inter-library loans.

The three state copyright libraries and the town library of Göteborg all lend, and act as regional central libraries for Southern, Central, Northern and Western Sweden; i.e. libraries, and in some cases individuals, apply directly either to the Royal Library, Stockholm or to the University libraries of Uppsala or Lund or the town library of Göteborg, whichever is nearest. These libraries prefer to lend only to the larger libraries and only for

serious purposes: they do not lend Swedish fiction to other libraries. The Royal Library acts as the national centre [B. 255,—*Année* 3. 1928. p. 108]. It is the address to which applications from foreign centres for the loan of, or information on, Swedish books should be sent: and it prepares a union catalogue of additions of foreign books to the chief Swedish libraries which are open to the public and receive some form of state support (*Sveriges offentliga bibliotek: Accessions-Katalog*), a similar publication to the Danish union list of foreign additions (p. 207), and, like that, issued annually. It began in 1886 [Vol. 44 for 1933 was published in 1934] and then included 7 libraries (the 3 copyright and 4 special libraries). It now includes 43, consisting of the chief state and academic libraries, the chief special libraries, and the chief public libraries except that of Stockholm, which, like the Public Library of Copenhagen, does not, except for special purposes, lend books outside the city. The entries in each volume are classified under 31 headings. In appendix there is a list of foreign universities and other institutions showing the Swedish libraries to which these send their publications, and since 1913 there is also an index of authors' names to the works recorded in each volume. A full index under authors' names is being published separately; four volumes, for 1886-95, 1896-1905, 1906-15, 1916-25, have so far appeared; the volume for 1926-35 is in preparation. The catalogue only includes foreign publications of the last decade, unless additions of an earlier date are of special importance, and it excludes unimportant reprints and pamphlets.

Uppsala and Lund University libraries are, of course, included in this catalogue, but they had previously published lists of their own additions of foreign books during 1850-85 (Uppsala) and 1853-85 (Lund).

All modern Swedish books will be in the three copyright libraries, and all which are important are recorded in the "*Årskatalog för svenska bokhandeln*," an annual publication of the Swedish book-trade. A more complete catalogue of Swedish books has been collected since 1866 in periods of five (up to 1895 in periods of 10) years, in "*Svensk bokkatalog*" (latest edition, for 1926-30, Stockholm, 1934).

The public libraries have not yet organized themselves so well for inter-lending as they have in Denmark ; but an organization similar to the Danish has been planned and in part put into effect. In 1929-30 it was decided that every one of the 24 counties (län) of Sweden should have a Central Library, i.e. that the chief public library of the district should be given an extra grant from the State in return for which it should extend its service to "supply the local libraries within the county by direct and free loans of books, needed for study and not to be found in the local libraries, by sending out travelling libraries and by giving advice and instruction in library matters. In order to be accepted as a central library, a library must possess a reading room with an approved collection of reference books, open to the public on suitable hours every week-day morning and afternoon. Its entire book stock must be satisfactory in extent and composition, and the librarian and staff must possess the necessary qualifications . . . Persons living within the county may borrow books needed for study from the central library either directly or through a local library. The loans are free and the central library pays carriage one way. This includes all non-fiction and foreign fiction in the original language, but Swedish fiction only when the borrower is studying literary history . . . If a book required for study is not in the central library it will be procured from another library" [B. 12, p. 270]. The central libraries must also send out travelling libraries "not only to libraries in receipt of state grants, but also to associations and individual borrowers" [B. 12, p. 270], and they must give advice on library matters. "This means that the central library is bound on request to render free assistance to public libraries within the county, by going through book-order lists or making suggestions for book-purchase, by directing and examining classification and cataloguing and by giving general advice. Even the larger public libraries in receipt of state grants, and also school libraries, may receive advice and instruction if not too extensive. The central librarian arranges annual conferences between the librarians of the libraries with state grants within the county . . . It is stipulated that the central librarians shall meet once a year with the central board or its

library advisers, in order to discuss matters regarding central library activities" [B. 12, p. 271].

It was planned to establish two new central libraries annually, but after six had been formed (in Eskilstuna, Göteborg, Halmstad, Karlstad, Luleå and Malmö) further development has had, unfortunately, to be stopped for the present for financial reasons. It is hoped that as soon as conditions improve, the State will be able to provide the necessary grants for the establishment of central libraries in the remaining counties.

In addition to these official central libraries, some other libraries already act to some extent as central libraries. So the "Linköpings Stifts- och landsbibliotek" is an amalgamation made in 1928 of the old Linköping Diocesan Library and the modern Town Library, and already serves readers outside the town throughout the Östergötlands län although not yet officially made a central library. Similarly the town libraries at Östersund, Norrköping, Hälsingborg, Växjö, Nyköping and Västervik are also used to some extent by individuals and readers outside their towns.

In some cases the central libraries, whether officially so constituted and receiving a state grant for the purpose or not, also receive an additional grant for their work as centres, from their country authorities.

Hence, although the organization of the central libraries is far from being completed, applications have already been regionalized to a considerable extent; for libraries must first apply to their central libraries, where these exist, and, where they do not, libraries often do apply to the largest library of their county before sending requests to one of the copyright libraries or other large library. For all this, the strain on the copyright libraries is very great. These, and all state libraries, lend books post free to other libraries receiving a state grant, including the libraries of the schools, and they also lend books directly to individuals in all parts of Sweden. They endeavour to restrict these loans to books which could be obtained in no other way, so that requests for common and cheap books are usually refused, and an individual, unless he is of recognized position, is asked to apply to his nearest public library or to give special

reasons for his request. But it is difficult effectively to restrict loans in this way, and the correspondence in refusals, requests for further information, etc., itself makes heavy work; so that there seems to be little doubt that the large learned, and especially the three copyright, libraries are now being excessively and unnecessarily troubled by requests from outside their respective towns. This matter is dealt with in B. 150 where it is also pointed out that further unnecessary trouble is caused by small libraries applying to the wrong library for a specialized book; and emphasis is laid on the fact that all this inefficiency is by no means due to carelessness in the small libraries, but to want of organization of the lending scheme as a whole. Mr. Sundström says that it is essential that central libraries shall be formed in each county and that normally all applications from other libraries should be sent to these before being forwarded to one of the copyright libraries. He says that these central libraries should be strengthened in every possible way, as by additional state grants and by the supply of all official literature. He notes that this strengthening will only be sound economics up to a certain point; that it will be wasteful to maintain 24 libraries largely duplicating each other and carrying large quantities of literature rarely asked for; and so he believes that a central library which is purely a lending library and information bureau should be created, both to collect older, foreign, and the less popular Swedish, literature, and to act as a clearing house for effecting loans not only between Swedish libraries but between these and libraries abroad. He suggests that this institution should be modelled on the British National Central Library, and says that the idea has already been favourably discussed among Swedish librarians. Mr. Sundström believes that such an organization would not only result in a great improvement in the central libraries and in the book supply to all other libraries, but that it would be of great benefit to the copyright and other large libraries which would not be drawn on so heavily and would be able to devote more of their energies to home service, reference work and bibliographical activities.

All Swedish libraries seem to be willing to lend books abroad, but whereas loans within Sweden are made to individuals as well

as to libraries in other parts of the country, loans to other countries are normally made only to libraries. An investigation into the borrowing and lending between eleven learned libraries (the three state libraries, the town libraries of Göteborg and Linköping, and six special state libraries in Stockholm) and libraries in foreign countries (B. 151) showed that in 1931 these libraries lent 1,253 books to, and borrowed 435 from, libraries in 13 countries. Of these 1,087 were lent to, and 261 borrowed from, the other Scandinavian countries, Norway, Denmark and Finland. It is interesting to note that six of the Swedish libraries lent 87, and four of these borrowed 70, manuscripts between them. It is also interesting that all the Swedish libraries themselves pay the postage on all books lent to foreign libraries, and do not expect it to be refunded, and this has become reciprocal among the Scandinavian countries and the Baltic Provinces. On the other hand Sweden has to refund postage on books borrowed from other countries, although still willing to pay postage on books lent to them. Mr. Sundström complains of this as incongruous and suggests that procedure should be standardized. It seems probable that most libraries in non-Scandinavian countries ask Swedish libraries to accept refund of postage on books borrowed from them, and that in practice Swedish libraries suffer no great loss, and need suffer none. As to the general question of postage in international loans, it is very probable that if all countries agreed to be responsible for the outgoing postage of books lent, small countries, as Sweden, would borrow much more from large countries than they do now, or than they would be asked to lend in return, and the burden then would certainly be on the large countries.

The details of the above mentioned loans in 1931 are as follows : 1. The Royal Library. 2. Uppsala University. 3. Lund University. 4. Göteborg Town Library. 5. Linköping County and Diocesan Library. 6. Royal Academy of Music. 7. Royal Academy of Letters. 8. State Archives. 9. Royal Technical High School. 10. Royal Academy of Science. 11. Royal Karolinska Institute. 12. Total lent by the Swedish library. 13. Total borrowed by the Swedish library.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Austria ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Belgium ..	—	2	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
Czecho-Slovakia	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Denmark ..	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	44	46	204	15	—	—	8	7	5	20	23	372	—
Estonia ..	28	47	61	19	—	—	11	6	—	3	6	—	—
	6	5	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	12	—
Finland ..	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	153	118	207	9	—	—	9	2	1	—	1	500	—
France ..	5	33	9	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Germany ..	33	64	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
	22	54	33	28	1	28	3	1	—	2	—	140	—
Great Britain	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—
	—	6	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Holland ..	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	3	—
	—	—	—	1	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Italy ..	—	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1	—
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Norway ..	59	13	—	3	1	—	5	—	99	—	10	215	—
	2	3	25	13	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—
Poland ..	1	1	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Switzerland	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
U.S. of America	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Borrowed ..	301	253	447	27	2	28	22	12	105	22	34	1253	—
Total Lent ..	62	150	110	72	—	—	17	11	1	6	6	—	435

As a further indication of inter-lending in Sweden the following figures show the transactions of the three copyright libraries during the past four years :—

1. Lent to Swedish Libraries. 2. Borrowed from Swedish Libraries. 3. Lent to foreign libraries. 4. Borrowed from foreign libraries. 5. Total lent. 6. Total borrowed.

Royal Library, Stockholm¹

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1925	2,583	977	62	92	2,645	1,069
1926	2,707	1,012	119	69	2,826	1,081
1927	2,820	990	131	97	2,951	1,087
1928	3,010	1,172	151	47	3,161	1,219
1929	3,108	1,254	115	141	3,223	1,395
1930	2,632	983	260	69	2,892	1,052
1931	2,835	945	267	52	3,102	997
1932	3,420	1,196	194	44	3,614	1,240
1933	3,546	1,120	172	38	3,718	1,158
Totals	26,661	9,649	1,471	649	28,132	10,298

University Library, Uppsala²

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1925-6	3,197	2,139	152	71	3,349	2,210
1926-7	3,245	2,057	141	102	3,386	2,159
1927-8	3,352	1,963	175	85	3,527	2,048
1928-9	3,439	1,863	220	122	3,659	1,985
1929-30	3,817	2,409	281	93	4,098	2,502
1930-1	3,250	2,670	205	96	3,455	2,766
1931-2	4,078	2,623	250	154	4,328	2,777
1932-3	4,222	2,758	264	130	4,486	2,888
1933-4	4,118	2,972	322	133	4,440	3,105
Totals	32,718	21,454	2,010	986	34,728	22,440

In column 1 are included loans made directly to individual readers outside Uppsala.

¹ Statistics supplied by Dr. E. Sundström, Sub-Librarian.

² Statistics supplied by Dr. A. Grape, Librarian.

University Library, Lund¹

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1924-5	1,889	782	53	43	1,942	825
1925-6	2,104	1,101	82	84	2,186	1,185
1926-7	2,073	1,045	97	77	2,170	1,122
1927-8	2,218	1,298	135	67	2,353	1,365
1928-9	2,037	1,022	147	95	2,184	1,117
1929-30	2,682	1,294	155	142	2,837	1,436
1930-1	2,453	1,097	324	76	2,777	1,173
1931-2	2,906	1,308	340	88	3,246	1,396
1932-3	3,046	1,787	287	158	3,333	1,945
1933-4	3,309	1,970	307	157	3,616	2,127
Totals (last 9 yrs.)	22,828	11,922	1,874	944	24,702	12,866

These statistics are of printed books only: details of manuscripts lent and borrowed are not available. The library also lent many books directly to readers both within Lund and in all parts of Sweden. About 50 to 100 readers outside Lund borrow directly from the University Library each year: the academic year being from July to June.

NORWAY

[B. p. 345]

There is not much to say about the development of co-operation in Norway, but arrangements for lending and some measures of centralization are of interest. The country is eight times as large as Denmark but its population of 2,800,000 is only four-fifths the size. Of this over a fifth is in the four chief towns, Oslo (300,000), Bergen (100,000), Trondheim (70,000) and Stavanger (50,000); the bulk of the remainder is in small rural communities; on an average there are 9 inhabitants to the sq. km. as against 81 in Denmark and 361 in England.

All told there are less than 300 institutions in the country which can properly be called libraries—266 libraries were included in B. 153 in 1924—for although there are about 1,200 state aided public libraries in existence, only 67 of these are in towns, the

¹ Statistics supplied by Dr. P. Wiener, Librarian.

bulk of the remainder consist of small collections of books in parish schools, halls or churches or buildings belonging to a young people's association.

The chief library of Norway is the University Library at Oslo (800,000 vols.) which is a state institution and the only copyright library in the country. It is virtually the national library. This lends to individuals in any part of Norway; borrowers in Oslo or district must have a guarantor's ticket, those elsewhere must have that and also a special permit which is supplied from the University Library if the applicant shows sufficient cause why he should be allowed to borrow. Books are lent post free, but borrowers must pay the return postage and must also sign an undertaking that they are ready to pay the whole cost of postage—this is to safeguard the library in case the State ever withdraws from it the privilege of free postage. Books are lent also to libraries but most requests come directly from individuals. Manuscripts and rare books are only lent to state libraries. The right of legal deposit was given to the University Library in 1815 but withdrawn in 1839 and not re-introduced until 1883 since when it has continued in force. The obligation to deposit is on the printer of each book, not the publisher, who is responsible for deposit copies only of books which he has had printed abroad, but the library has friendly relations with most Norwegian publishers from whom it gets a second free copy of most books for its bibliographical purposes.

The University Library is therefore essentially a national library, for lending as well as reference purposes, for the entire kingdom, and its services are usually direct, seldom through the intermediation of other libraries. There are no official regulations for inter-lending, but certain procedure has been established by practice. Thus the University Library often refuses an application for a common Norwegian or other book which the applicant could get from a library nearer to him, and suggests the library to which he should apply.

In this way it encourages enquirers to make use of local libraries before applying to the University Library. There are two definite regional arrangements (1) that all readers on the West coast must apply to the Library of Bergen Museum,

(2) that all readers in the North must apply to the Library of the Royal Society of Sciences in Trondheim—both state institutions for higher education—before applying to the University Library.

Besides being the national depository for Norwegian books and books about Norway, the University Library is also a learned general library. Its field is not limited to that of the university studies—though they of course occupy the central place—but covers also every other field of learning not being served by a special state library. The University Library orders foreign books both on its own initiative and at the request of applicants. Every demand for a book not owned by the library, is handed over to the order department and treated as suggestion for acquisition. If a special library is considered more likely to acquire a desired work, the University Library passes the request on to that library or suggests to the applicant that he should apply there.

There is no union "accessionskatalog" of foreign books as in the other Scandinavian countries, but the University Library supplies the above mentioned research libraries in Bergen and Trondheim with deposit sets of its catalogue-cards of recent acquisitions. Moreover, it issues every month typewritten lists of new additions in the different branches of learning, to the respective professors and to other libraries.

The University Library also by special agreement with the Association of Norwegian publishers prepares the official Norwegian book catalogue, which is issued every fifth year. The last one is "Norsk bokfortegnelse 1926-30, utgitt av Universitetsbiblioteket. Den norske bokhandlerforening, Oslo, 1932."

The University Library also supplies bibliographical information on Norwegian literature and on books and manuscripts in other Norwegian libraries. It makes and supplies photostat copies, and, for special literary inquiries and research work it supplies applicants with private assistance. [B. 31, pp. 44-5].

At the University there are also about 40 institute and seminar libraries of different sizes. They are, however, not under the control of the director of the University Library, but are administered by the respective professors or special committees. As a rule they co-operate with the University Library in the purchase of more expensive works and in subscription to periodicals.

The other chief learned libraries in Norway are that of the Royal Society of Sciences (Kongelige Norske Videnskabers Selskab) in Trondheim (160,000 vols.), that of the Technical College (Norges Tekniske Høiskole) in the same city (72,000 vols.), that of the Agricultural College (Norges Landbruks-høiskole) at Ås (25,000 vols.) and that of Bergens Museum (200,000 vols.). All these are controlled and supported almost entirely by the government.

All state libraries lend to individuals and other libraries in all parts of Norway. They also lend abroad, but, in accordance with general practice, only to other libraries. As with the Royal Library at Stockholm, the University Library at Oslo is ready to pay postage on books sent to foreign libraries, the borrowers being responsible only for the return postage.

The most important municipal libraries are the Public Library of Bergen, founded in 1874 (170,000 vols.) and the famous Deichmanske Library at Oslo, founded by Carl Deichman, iron-founder, in 1780 as a free library, and now the municipal library of the capital in a magnificent building opened in 1933 and containing over 200,000 volumes. This is supported entirely by its own endowments and by the city. It receives no state grant as do all the other public libraries, and, like those of Copenhagen and Stockholm, concentrates on the service of its own city and rarely lends books to readers outside it.

The public libraries were started in the early part of the 19th century, the first state grants being made in 1841. In 1902 the Storting authorized the appointment by the Ministry for Ecclesiastical and Educational Affairs of a consulting librarian (adviser) on public and school libraries. A few years later a Library Office was set up at the Ministry with this officer in charge: the address is Bibliotekkontoret, Kirke- of Undervisnings-departementet, Victoria Terrasse 9, Oslo, and this promotes the foundation of new libraries, gives advice on library affairs, exercises control, submits proposals for, and apports, state grants, publishes special catalogues as aids in book selection, arranges library courses and publishes a library journal. This is very similar to the Swedish Library Commission (p. 217) and the Danish Inspectorate (p. 210-12), and as the former and unlike the

latter is not an information bureau and clearing house for effecting inter-library loans. In 1926 the Office published a classified catalogue (about 5,000 titles) of Scandinavian "best books," and in 1932 a catalogue (about 7,000 titles) of books available for loan from the State travelling libraries collection in Oslo. All state-aided public libraries are allowed discount of from 10 per cent to 20 per cent on Norwegian books in the catalogues issued by the Library Office.

The Office arranges for the inspection of public libraries receiving a state grant, but this can only be done irregularly because of the long distances involved and insufficient staff. An attempt is being made to appoint a local inspector for each province, paid jointly by the state and province. Once each year the Office organizes a three weeks training course for library workers. This is free to all librarians, who can also recover a portion of their travelling expenses from the State. In addition "as the librarians of small public libraries, particularly the rural, are frequently teachers, it has been decided by law that at Teachers' Training Colleges the pupils are to be given a short course of instruction in the organization and work of a public library." [B. 12, p. 217]. It would be well if such a law existed, even if on other grounds, in all countries.

"An arrangement peculiar to Norwegian libraries is the institution known as Folkeboksamlingenes Ekspedsjon (the Forwarding Office of Public Libraries). In order to ensure to the public libraries a strong and cheap book-binding, the Ministry, as early as 1903, entrusted this work to one bookbinder in Oslo, subject to the superintendence of the Ministry.

"The public libraries must bind all books purchased by them from the catalogues of the Library Office, at this central establishment. The volumes are furnished with title, Dewey number and Cutter author mark (furnished by the Library Office), a pocket and a card [and a printed catalogue card], and are despatched post free to the libraries.

"By arrangement with the publishers the Forwarding Office is in a position to maintain a very large stock of bound copies of the books most in demand, so that about 80 per cent of the volumes ordered can be supplied at once." [B. 12, p. 215-6].

"The procedure in book purchase is for the libraries to draw up their orders in duplicate, one copy being sent to the book dealer, the other first to the Library Office, whence it goes to the Forwarding Office for checking and the transmission of the books, duly bound." [B. 12, p. 217-8].

It has always been planned to develop a system of central libraries as in Denmark, but this has so far been held up by lack of finance. It is felt to be one of the main tasks of the Library Office to develop some such system [B. 24, Vol. 5. p. 90]. At present, inhabitants of rural communes are often allowed to use the libraries of neighbouring towns on payment of a small fee, but there is no organized co-operation between the town and rural libraries. Communities with more than 4,000 inhabitants now get no library grant from the State, and in smaller areas libraries are often supported largely by young people's associations, private individuals, and local savings banks—in Norway many of the savings banks make handsome donations annually to cultural institutions such as libraries. The annual state grant for all public libraries, which was 180,000 crowns in 1923, is now 150,000 crowns. This may be increased by a project for a new law concerning libraries which is now before the Storting and may be passed by the summer of 1935.

The following are the loan transactions—as far as records have been kept—of the University Library, other than to individual readers, since 1926 :—

1. Lent to Norwegian libraries. 2. Borrowed from Norwegian libraries. 3. Lent to foreign libraries. 4. Borrowed from foreign libraries. 5. Total lent. 6. Total borrowed.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1926	?	33	?	127	?	160
1927	?	35	?	194	?	229
1928	?	29	?	228	?	257
1929	?	80	?	189	?	269
1930	396	43	82	118	478	161
1931	487	49	117	183	604	232
1932	370	184	81	378	451	562
1933	507	54	64	341	571	395
1934	657	79	60	240	717	319

FINLAND

[B. p. 345]

Co-operation between Finnish libraries has not developed to the extent it has in Sweden, much less to that in Denmark, but it is, perhaps, slightly more developed than it is in Norway. The population is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions, of which 83 per cent live in rural areas. The chief towns, with their populations, are Helsinki (Helsingfors) (240,000), Turku (Åbo) (65,000), Tampere (Tammerfors) (55,000) and Viipuri (Viborg) (55,000). The chief university town from 1640-1828 was Turku which still contains two small private universities, but the old university with its library was destroyed by fire in 1827 and the present State university was established at Helsinki in 1828. For six centuries, from 1257-1809, Finland was united politically with Sweden, hence Finnish civilization is entirely Western and in the towns and Western districts there is a good deal of Swedish culture and 11 per cent of the total population is Swedish speaking. From 1809-1917 the country was politically united to Russia, of which there is now little trace in Russian culture or language.

The chief libraries are the University Library at Helsinki (over 500,000 vols.), the Library of the Diet, Helsinki (100,000 vols.), the [Swedish] Academy Library, Turku (150,000 vols.), the [Finnish] University Library, Turku (230,000 vols.), the Library of the Learned Societies, Helsinki (70,000 vols.), the Library of the Technical High School, Helsinki, and the Students' Library, Helsinki.

The first of these is the national library. It is supported by the State and has been a copyright library since 1707 (in 1919 the right of legal deposit was extended to the Library of the Diet, the libraries of the University and of the Academy in Turku, and the Scientific Library in Jyväskylä), and, like the other Finnish state libraries, lends its books not only to local readers for home reading but to libraries in all parts of Finland. It does not, like the University Library, Oslo, lend books for home reading outside its own city, except in special cases. Books are lent post free within Finland from the state libraries, and the period of loan is from one to two months. It is the centre to which all

applications from abroad for the loan of Finnish books, should be sent; and it prepares a union catalogue of additions of foreign books to its own and 13 of the other chief Finnish libraries (Finlands Vetenskapliga Biblioteks: Accessions-Katalog. Utg. av Helsingfors Universitetsbibliotek. 1, *etc.* 1929, *etc.* Helsingfors. 1930, *etc.*) The library had also printed lists of its own additions of foreign books from 1866-1928.

The large state libraries are all willing to lend to libraries abroad, on condition that the books are only used within the borrowing libraries and that these are willing to lend in return. They are ready to be responsible for outgoing postage, the borrowing library to pay return postage, under reciprocal agreements.

Public popular libraries were established soon after 1840, but they were not organized until the Library Law, passed by the Diet in 1928, which came into force in 1929. This appointed a State Library Commission with a State Library Bureau as the executive office. The staff of the Bureau includes seven library inspectors who each live in one of the seven districts into which the country has been divided for library purposes. They "do propaganda work for libraries, direct the organization of libraries, inspect libraries receiving state aid, *etc.*" [B. 12, p. 94]. This has done much to get over the difficulty of making contact between the inspectorate and the libraries which is experienced in Norway. The Library Bureau "publishes annotated lists of Finnish and Swedish books printed in the country. An adaptation of Dewey's decimal classification, with explanations and an index, was published some time ago; catalogue rules are being prepared, also a list of subject headings and a general catalogue of older literature recommended to libraries. Library courses are also organized and directed by the Library Bureau" [B. 12, pp. 94-5] and, as in Norway, "in training schools for teachers, regular instruction in library work has been given since . . . 1911 to future elementary school teachers, and in the model schools working in connection with the training schools the importance and use of libraries as an aid to instruction is emphasized." [B. 12, p. 98.]

The law of 1929 planned that a system of Central Libraries, as

in Denmark, should be set up, but so far none has been established owing to lack of finance for the purpose.

The following are loan transactions, other than to local readers, of the University of Helsinki and the two private universities at Turku :—

1. Lent to Finnish libraries. 2. Borrowed from Finnish libraries. 3. Lent to foreign libraries. 4. Borrowed from foreign libraries. 5. Total lent. 6. Total borrowed.

Helsinki. The University.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1927-8	139	—	138	—	277	—
1928-9	257	—	114	—	371	—
1929-30	420	—	152	54	572	54
1930-1	537	2	124	88	655	90
1931-2	844	7	116	110	960	117
1932-3	834	7	74	105	908	112
1933-4	819	—	85	121	904	121
1934-5	901	—	119	110	1020	110

Turku. [Finnish] University.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1925-6	1	72	—	1	1	73
1926-7	17	120	—	—	17	120
1927-8	1	143	—	—	1	143
1928-9	13	160	—	—	13	160
1929-30	20	371	—	5	20	376
1930-1	28	454	—	2	28	456
1931-2	84	428	—	1	84	429
1932-3	103	591	—	4	103	595
1933-4	—	535	—	3	—	538

Turku. [Swedish] Academy.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1925-6	1	97	—	74	1	173
1926-7	3	156	—	75	3	201
1927-8	3	110	—	50	3	160
1928-9	11	172	—	67	11	236
1929-30	52	331	1	88	53	419
1930-1	81	450	1	306	82	756
1931-2	50	518	1	333	51	851
1932-3	33	710	2	199	35	609

CHAPTER VIII

BELGIUM, HOLLAND, SWITZERLAND

BELGIUM

[B. p. 345]

The Belgian library system offers no striking departure from the general characteristics of Continental systems, some of which are mentioned on pp. 123-26. As in Germany, public "popular" libraries are of recent growth and the chief libraries are the older state libraries, the Royal Library at Brussels and the university libraries of Ghent, Liège (both incorporating old town libraries), and the free university libraries of Brussels and Louvain, which all serve the general public. With these must be taken the Town Library of Antwerp, founded in 1505 and having 500,000 volumes, which has a regular lending service with the Royal and University libraries. But in contrast with Germany, Belgium is small and compact and, of course, has a political unity of long standing, and in consequence has one chief national library, the Royal Library at Brussels.

The two library worlds found in most countries are markedly separate in Belgium. Each has its own association and publishes its own journal. One, the Association des Conservateurs d'Archives, de Bibliothèques et de Musées, with headquarters at Rue du Musée, 1, Brussels, issues a monthly bulletin *Archives, Bibliothèques et Musées*: the other, the Vlaamsche Vereeniging van Bibliotheekbeambten, at Karel Oomstr., 51, Antwerp, issues a journal *De Bibliotheekgids* monthly, except in August and September when there are no issues. The members of the former are chiefly librarians of the larger learned libraries who have had an academic training; the members of the other are mainly librarians of the smaller public libraries who have had no academic training. The first journal is scholarly but often contains articles on library administration; the second is popular

and includes much propaganda for the improvement of the status of the popular libraries. The first is mainly in French, the second mainly in Flemish, and this difference of language accentuates the distinction between the two associations.

The centre of the Belgian library system is the chief state library, the Royal Library, 5, rue du Musée, Brussels, which contains over a million books and 40,000 manuscripts as well as large and valuable collections of maps, prints, coins and medals. It is directly and solely supported by the State, as are the university libraries of Liège and Ghent, but it does not have the right of legal deposit, the State buys for it from the publishers one copy of each Belgian publication. The Royal Library lends to University Professors and in special cases to any other serious student (teacher, research worker, scientist, doctor, etc.) in Brussels, and to any library in Belgium. It also lends to any library of standing (e.g. national or university) in Europe. The state libraries of Liège and Ghent universities similarly lend, and so do the free universities of Brussels and Louvain and most other Belgian learned libraries. Lending is also extensively practised between the public popular libraries.

Brussels is, of course, the home of the International Institute of Documentation (formerly Bibliography) but that is essentially international, and therefore is treated separately on pp. 310-18. Yet it was the International Office of Bibliography (which is allied to the International Institute of Documentation) which first started a national union catalogue of Belgian libraries. This was done between 1895 and 1904 when the Office was housed in the Royal Library. It was unfinished when the Office left the premises of the Royal Library, and comparatively few additions have been made to it since. The catalogue, which was made by cutting up printed catalogues of Belgian libraries, pasting each entry on a card and sorting them into one alphabetical sequence, contains over 1½ million entries, and is at the headquarters of the Institute of Documentation and is the property of the International Office of Bibliography. Since most of the printed catalogues used a different code and some were badly done, and as comparatively few Belgian printed catalogues existed, and not all of these were used, this union

catalogue is inaccurate and fragmentary. In consequence, although it may still be of some use as a finding list, it is an imperfect tool, and it is felt by some Belgian librarians that it would probably be unwise, and perhaps impossible to complete it. At the same time, this pioneer work must still be of value in itself and must have done much to promote lending between Belgian libraries. Further details of it are given on pp. 312-13.

A union catalogue of periodicals in 27 libraries had been issued in 1881 (*Ministère de l'Intérieur : Bureau de Traduction : Catalogue des ouvrages périodiques que reçoivent les principales bibliothèques de Belgique.* pp. 100. Bruxelles) and a union catalogue of scientific periodicals appeared in 1927 (*Répertoire des périodiques scientifiques existant dans les bibliothèques belges.* etc. pp. 377. Gand.). Most libraries of importance have issued printed lists of additions at intervals, and in 1930 an attempt was made to compile and publish a union catalogue of the additions to the chief Belgian libraries [B. 161], excluding current Belgian publications added to the Royal Library since these appear in the *Bibliographie de Belgique*. It comprised the additions to 18 libraries—originally the Royal and the 4 university libraries, the Town Free Library and 6 special libraries in Brussels, and the library of the Veterinary College, Cureghem, to which 5 special libraries were later added—and was published quarterly, but, for financial reasons was, unfortunately, suspended after part 3 of vol. 3 for 1932. It is hoped that it may soon be resumed and that it may develop, as was originally planned, into a union catalogue of additions to all Belgian research libraries, without exception. The catalogue is arranged in classified order by the Decimal System to which there is an alphabetical index of subjects attached to each part. Fifth parts issued in 1930 and in 1931, and part 3 of 1932, consist of alphabetical indexes of authors' names and titles of anonymous works.

The catalogue came into being through the activity of the Permanent Committee of the Research Libraries (formed by the "Fondation Universitaire" in 1929), which recommended to the Ministry "des Sciences et des Arts" that such a union catalogue should be compiled and published. The Ministry authorized

the Royal Library to undertake the work, and that, as a first step, issued on December 14th, 1929, a list of cataloguing rules [B. 160] to be adopted by the participating libraries. These rules were revised in 1933 [*see* L.Q. 1934, 659-60]. The entries were contributed on cards by the participating libraries to the Royal Library, where they were edited for the Press. The Permanent Committee has also projected a union catalogue of periodicals.

The main organization for inter-lending is that which had been established between the Royal Library and those of the 4 universities by September 27th, 1926 [B. 159. p. 27]. Standard application forms each bearing the names of all these libraries are used by them all. When making an application a librarian fills in the form and signs it under the name of his library and sends it to any one of the others, marking it, if he wishes, with the words "Faire suivre s.v.p." or some such phrase equivalent to "Please forward." If the first library to receive the form can lend the book, it does so, retaining the form but detaching from it and returning a counterfoil with the book; if not, it stamps against its name on the form "Manque à" (Not in) and sends it on to one of the other libraries. If none of the libraries has the book, the last one to receive the form, seeing all other spaces stamped "Manque à," returns the form to the enquiring library. In practice the university libraries nearly always send their applications first of all to the Royal Library, especially if the book is Belgian. Should it be foreign they may first send the enquiry to a special library more likely to have it than any of the other 4 libraries in the scheme. If, for example, a foreign book on geology is required, the enquiry will certainly first be sent to the library of the Société de Géologie at Brussels.

The University of Brussels has printed for itself a similar form of postcard size—to match its other forms—but it uses it in the same way.

Any other library in Belgium may apply directly to the Royal Library or other state library, and, by courtesy, to any special, or local public library. The public libraries are very numerous and active, as may be seen from B. 12, 15, 32, 155, 158, 164, but there is as yet no organized scheme of lending between them, although most of them are willing to lend, and do lend, to other

libraries. By the famous "Loi Destrée" of 1921, communes were compelled to establish public libraries if requested by one-fifth of the electoral body, and encouragement to do this in the form of state grants in books, and money for buildings and equipment, was offered. It was laid down that librarians must be qualified, and that the public and rural circulating libraries are to be supervised and inspected by a Conseil supérieur des bibliothèques publiques appointed by the Ministère des Sciences et des Arts.

Most Belgian libraries are willing to lend books abroad preferably through the medium of the Royal Library, which is the centre to which enquiries from abroad should be sent. The Royal Library will endeavour to answer any requests from foreign libraries for bibliographical information, although it cannot undertake lengthy tasks such as the compilation of long lists of books. It will lend directly to any foreign library at no charge other than that of postage, and supply rotograph facsimiles from its stock at cost price. If the book or manuscript required is rare or valuable, it may, if lent at all, be lent through the diplomatic service and insured. Should the Royal Library not have the book, it will try to trace a copy in another Belgian library. Regulations were put into force by the Belgian Government on November 1st, 1928, for an international loan service at the Royal Library (*See L.A.R. 1928. p. 295*).

The following statistics were compiled by Monsieur A. Vincent, of the Royal Library and printed in B. 24 :—6, 1934. pp. 74-5. They refer to the Royal Library, Brussels, the university libraries of Ghent, Liège, Brussels and Louvain, and the Town Libraries of Antwerp and Tournai.

1. Books lent to other Belgian Libraries.

	1932		1933	
	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>
Royal Library	1,754	77	1,814	117
Antwerp (Town)	54	—	22	1
Brussels (Univ.)	—	—	—	—
Ghent	525	6	674	8
Liège	149	—	143	—
Louvain	573	—	532	—
Tournai (Town)	3	—	7	—

2. Books lent to Foreign Libraries.

	1932		1933	
	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>
Royal Library	101	35	136	31
Antwerp (Town)	3	—	8	—
Brussels (Univ.)	—	—	—	—
Ghent	56	6	38	4
Liège	1	1	5	—
Louvain	18	1	26	—
Tournai (Town)	—	—	—	—

Through the intermediary of the Royal Library other Belgian libraries have lent 26 books to foreign libraries in 1932 and 11 in 1933.

3. Books borrowed from other Belgian Libraries.

	1932		1933	
	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>
Royal Library	63	4	86	11
Antwerp (Town)	262	3	217	13
Brussels (Univ.)	886	—	780	—
Ghent	898	5	979	9
Liège	1,258	7	1,280	11
Louvain	199	21	234	25
Tournai (Town)	4	1	11	4

4. Books borrowed from foreign libraries.

	1932		1933	
	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>	<i>Printed</i>	<i>MS.</i>
Royal Library	30	11	27	36
Antwerp (Town)	4	2	11	5
Brussels (Univ.)	507	4	307	3
Ghent	—	—	—	—
Liège	35	—	29	2
Louvain	10	17	17	17
Tournai (Town)	—	—	—	—

Through the intermediary of the Royal Library, foreign libraries have lent 63 books to other Belgian libraries in 1932 and 53 in 1933.

Another union catalogue of importance is that of incunabula in Belgian libraries compiled by M. L. Polain [B. 163]. This

was published jointly by the Government and the Fondation Universitaire de Belgique. It shows the holdings of 87 libraries of which 22 are private collections. The project was formed in 1920—stimulated by the fact that during the War members of the Berlin Union Catalogue of Incunabula Commission had worked at the Belgian incunabula—and although the brunt of the work was borne by M. Polain, the catalogue was made possible by the help of librarians. There is also a proposal for a union catalogue of manuscripts in Belgian libraries [B. 156].

HOLLAND

[B. pp. 345-46]

In 1929, when the population was over $7\frac{1}{2}$ millions, Holland had some 500 libraries [B. 168], and, although a number of these are small, this denotes a national library service of high standard. In 1929 the libraries could be roughly grouped as "State (including University) and other academic," 40; Public (including Public Libraries founded by religious bodies), 120; Special, 340. A good general account of Dutch libraries is that written in German in 1914 [B. 171]. It is divided into 8 sections:—
1. Libraries of the Middle Ages. 2. The University libraries. 3. The Royal Library. 4. The popular libraries. 5. Institutional and other special libraries. 6. The Public Libraries and reading rooms. 7. The Catholic Public libraries. 8. Libraries of the State, the various Provinces and towns. The book is therefore not only historical but gives a survey of the whole library system as it was at the outbreak of the War.

The story of Dutch libraries is long and interesting. Monastic libraries seem to have existed as early as the 8th century; some of the town libraries are very old, and of the 4 older university libraries, Leiden, Amsterdam, Utrecht and Groningen, the first 3 were founded in the 16th and the last early in the 17th century. These university libraries, as is the rule on the Continent, have always served the general public as well as their own members; they are public libraries, and, with the Royal Library at the Hague and a few other similar research libraries, are still the backbone

of the national library service. Like the Royal Library, three are state libraries (Amsterdam is the exception, being a municipal institution) and almost entirely dependent on state grants, but each exercises complete autonomy in its own administration. The chief library is the Royal Library at the Hague, which was founded in 1798 and now contains over a million books and a valuable collection of manuscripts. Like the university and indeed most other libraries in Holland, it lends books, and so is a national library both for reference and lending purposes. The Royal and University libraries lend without restriction to each other and to their own readers. They will also lend directly to any applicant of recognized position (teacher, doctor, lawyer, etc.) and will usually lend to any other Dutch library books which these do not possess. They are ready, subject to conditions of reciprocity, to lend to foreign libraries directly and not through diplomatic channels, and such lending has been in progress for some time with Belgium, Germany, Austria, France, Scandinavia, Switzerland and Great Britain. Parcels are registered and the costs of carriage and insurance (when necessary) are borne by the borrowing library.

Holland is, like most Continental countries, well provided with a number of academic libraries of which the chief belong to the state, which all lend, serve a very wide public, and are strong generally, but particularly in old books and the humanities. This is the oldest and still the most important field of the Dutch library service. But the service is by no means confined to this field, for, as indicated in the above figures, Holland is rich in special, notably technical, libraries of many kinds, and in Public Libraries.

The special libraries include, of course, many which properly belong to the group of academic libraries noted above, and—in addition to a large number of small libraries—many of great size and importance as that of the “Technical Highschool” at Delft, founded in 1843, containing over 200,000 volumes on all branches of science and engineering; that of the Landbouwhoogeschool at Wageningen, founded in 1873, and now having over 200,000 volumes mainly on agriculture; that of the Nederlandsche Handels-Hoogeschool at Rotterdam, founded in 1913,

and containing some 60,000 volumes on commerce and economics ; and that of the Palace of Peace, founded in 1913, an international library now with some 80,000 volumes on international relations, law, diplomatic and political history.

The modern Public Library movement seems to go back no earlier than 1892 when the Public Library at Utrecht was opened, although popular circulating libraries classed as charitable institutions had existed for some time before. Since 1892 the movement has made great progress, and Holland may be reckoned with Great Britain and Denmark as one of the chief Public Library countries of Europe. "Public" is, however, not quite an accurate term, for "Public reading rooms in Holland are nearly all based on private enterprise with state and municipal aid" [B. 12, p. 148], and separate Public Libraries are established throughout the country "representing the Neutral, the Roman Catholic, and the Orthodox Christian points of view, each serving its own public, and separately subsidized, according to population statistics" [B. 12, p. 148], and, further, they are not "free," since readers are usually charged a small subscription. As a result, it is quite common to find one or two Public Libraries in the same town each independent of the other : but many of the larger libraries have branches in their towns and even send out small travelling libraries into rural districts. There are also a number of small local associations of Public Libraries, as in Amsterdam.

The two chief professional associations are :—1. The Nederlandsche Vereeniging van Bibliothecarissen, with office at the Library of the Palace of Peace, the Hague ; 2. Centrale Vereeniging voor Openbare Leesalen en Bibliotheken, with office at van Blankenburg straat, 37, The Hague. The first is mainly for libraries of research and special libraries, the second for Public Librarians. Each holds its meetings independently of the other, but since 1923 both, with a few other associations, have held a joint annual conference. Both are strong associations, the second includes many non-librarians and does much to further Public Library work generally. The journal *Bibliotheekleven* is a joint monthly publication of the two associations, which also published B. 168. The first association publishes an annual

catalogue of academic theses (*Catalogus van Academische Geschriften*) and the second issues a yearbook (*Leeszaaljaarboekje*). This "Central Association of Public Libraries" "acts as adviser on public reading room matters to the government; it proportions and administers state grants; it supervises all public reading rooms, and sees to it that none but trained assistants are appointed. It has charge of all recognized library training, prescribing courses and issuing certificates and diplomas . . . The Roman Catholic libraries, as well as the Orthodox Christian libraries, have each formed separate associations, subject to the same rules as the Central Association . . . Besides all this there exists a State Council which covers the whole field of library work, including the University and other special libraries." [B. 12, p. 150]. This latter, of which the title is "*Rijkscommissie van advies inzake het Bibliotheekwezen*," was founded in 1922. Its members consist of the librarians of the Royal and University libraries, the Technische Hoogeschool, Delft, the Landbouwhoogeschool, Wageningen, the Handels-Hoogeschool Rotterdam, the Catholic University, Nijmegen, and of some other large libraries, as well as a few non-librarians, and it meets twice a year. In some ways it is little more than a name, but for all that it is very important. Its name has been used as a powerful lever to induce libraries to join the union catalogue scheme centred in the Royal Library, and it has issued a standard list of cataloguing rules (*Regels voor de titelbeschrijving*, pp. 18, 1924) and rules for alphabetical arrangement (*Regels voor de alfabetische rangschikking der titelbeschrijvingen*, pp. 17, 1929).

There is no professional training for the staffs of the Royal Library, the University and other large research libraries. The only qualification is a university degree. But in the public library service the staffs undergo a thorough training, now made compulsory and general by the Central Public Library Association and which may be summarized as follows: every assistant must have passed the Dutch university matriculation examination before he (or she) can enter a library. This examination is usually taken between the ages of 17 and 19 years. The assistant must complete one year's full time service, and then one more year during which one day in each week is spent at a library

school, of which there are 5. After this the assistant takes an examination in practical as well as theoretical work, and if successful, is granted a diploma. He is now qualified for Public Library work and need do no more training: but the best students usually take a further one year's "Director's" course. During this time they must still work in a library, but also attend for 3 or 4 days each week, advanced classes at the Library school at the Hague. A second diploma is granted to candidates who pass the examinations concluding this course. A librarian who has successfully taken this full course needs no other formal qualification to reach the highest posts in the public library service: but yet it is common to find that the heads of the large public libraries are men with university degrees.

Co-operation.

Library co-operation in Holland can be divided into 3 parts corresponding to the 3 fields of library work: (1) the research libraries, the State, University and some of the large libraries of academic type; (2) the special, and particularly the technical libraries; (3) the popular (public) libraries. There are organized systems between the libraries in the first two groups; but Dutch libraries in general lend freely and lending goes on between libraries of all types.

The oldest system is that between the research libraries, which have lent to each other for many years. In the first part of the present century the Royal and University libraries used enquiry slips which were circulated among themselves and sometimes sent to other libraries. These did much good work, but as Dr. P. C. Molhuysen says in B. 169 (from which much information in this section is taken) they caused a great deal of wasted time. If a single enquiry was issued it often only located the book in the last library to which it was sent, or not at all. If 2 or 3 were issued simultaneously for one book required urgently, sometimes 2 or 3 copies would be received and 1 or more have to be posted back at once. For these and other reasons it had been felt by many Dutch librarians even before the War that a union catalogue was a necessity. Dr. Molhuysen planned such a catalogue in 1910 and was further convinced of its necessity after

a visit to the Berlin Bureau in 1913. In 1919 he published his scheme for it in "Bibliotheekleven." The purpose of the catalogue was threefold, (1) to enable a reader to obtain a book as quickly as possible, (2) to provide a source of bibliographical information, (3) to guide libraries in the acquisition of books; to prevent unnecessary duplication. It was planned not to print the catalogue, and it was estimated that the annual cost of its preparation would be about fl.7000 (£600) and although this was criticized as being too low the Royal Library subsequently undertook the work with no grant for it. The idea of a classified catalogue was rejected as being impracticable and of less utility than an author catalogue.

In 1921 Dr. Molhuysen (who by that time had become librarian of the Royal Library) supported by the librarians of the University libraries, obtained the interest of the Ministry of Education in the scheme and the formation of the Rijksc commissie van Advies inzake het Bibliotheekwezen; and in 1922 a union catalogue of the four university libraries was begun at the Royal Library, where it is housed. It is noteworthy that although four of the libraries belong to the state, the union catalogue was not ordered or organized by the state. As in Prussia, the project originated from the librarians whose first step here, as there, was to obtain state interest, but then the work in Holland was carried on purely by voluntary co-operation with no state direction. The project was to compile a union catalogue of the four university libraries. It was decided not to include the catalogue of the Royal Library since there was no intention of printing the union catalogue, the labour of copying and maintaining alterations to Royal Library pressmarks was felt to be prohibitive, and as the union catalogue was to be compiled by a method other than that used in Prussia, no basic catalogue was required for circulation, as there.

The compilation of the catalogue was made possible by the fact that each of the university libraries except Groningen had printed catalogues, and all issued printed lists of additions and had done so for many years. (Groningen has been printing its catalogue in the course of the work, its first volume appeared in 1922 and the 5th and last in 1933). Copies of all these were sent to the Royal Library for the entries to be cut out, pasted on

cards and sorted into one alphabetical sequence : all that the universities had to do was to supply their catalogues and lists of additions. The Royal Library has not only had no extra grant for the work but has never engaged any extra staff for it.

The first catalogues to be dealt with were those of Leiden followed by Utrecht and Groningen, and, as time went on, those of other libraries which joined the scheme. There are now 30 libraries contributing and the number steadily increases. Since most Dutch libraries have printed catalogues and/or print lists of additions, the method of compiling the catalogue has remained generally the same, but in some cases where libraries have not had these catalogues they have sent manuscript entries to the Royal Library which have been copied there for the union catalogue. Two copies of each catalogue in book form are, of course, necessary for cutting up, and a third is needed for reference. The slips on which the entries are pasted are of about 185×100 mm. since a number of entries privately made and presented to the Royal Library and used as a nucleus for the union catalogue were of this size. This nucleus catalogue was withdrawn in 1928 by the Frederik Mullerfonds which had deposited it in the library.

When the catalogues are received at the Royal Library they are checked and roughly normalized, and such matters are seen to as the filling in of authors' names only represented by a dash (in all entries after the first where an author has written two or more books). They are then cut into pages, one volume for recto and a duplicate for verso, at the Royal Library. The recto and verso pages are put together in small batches of about 8 pages each which are then sent to a women's prison where the entries are cut out, pasted on the slips, and the name and number (each contributing library is given a key number) are stamped in the left top corner of the slip. In this way the work is done cheaply and well. The entries, now pasted on slips, are returned from the prison tied up in batches corresponding to those of the pages sent. At the Royal Library one or two of these batches are checked, as a test of the work, with a third copy of the printed catalogue, and then the slips are handed to junior assistants who sort them into groups by each letter of the alphabet. Senior

assistants then sort the entries exactly and they are again checked before insertion into the union catalogue.

Notices of additions are contributed in various ways : where libraries print such notices, as Leiden University does in annual lists, the Peace Palace in lists issued more frequently but irregularly and the Utrecht University on slips as new books are received, these printed notices are used in the same way as the printed catalogues : where libraries only make manuscript entries these are lent to the Royal Library for a short time and copied there. Indeed whole manuscript catalogues are copied in this way, batches of 1 to 200 entries being lent to the Royal Library for a few days at a time.

As the Royal Library undertook the main work in compiling the catalogue and houses it, it of course works the catalogue and is the centre of the scheme. That the Royal Library should be the centre was from the outset never questioned. No other library could have taken the position, and had the Royal Library not done so the scheme would not have started. The library acts as an information bureau on the whereabouts of books, and sometimes gives bibliographical information : there is no separate bureau as at Berlin.

The procedure in dealing with enquiries is as follows :— All applications for defined books are first checked with the catalogue of the Royal Library. Those found, receive the press-mark of the book and are sent to the lending department, the rest go immediately to the union catalogue. Some of the first batch, for books already on loan or otherwise not available, later come to the union catalogue. Those which are found in this receive a stamp bearing the letters C.C. (Centrale Catalogus) and the numbers 1-40: the numbers of the libraries possessing the book are then struck through in ink and the slips are sent by the afternoon post of the day of their arrival, to one of these libraries. If this can lend the book, it does so ; if not it forwards the request to another library marked as having the book, if another is so marked, and if not, returns the application to the applicant. The applications which cannot be traced in the union catalogue are stamped " Niet in C.C." and then, if the Royal Library knows of any library likely to have such a book required it sends the

application to that library. Otherwise it is returned to the sender. Further search in Dutch or foreign libraries may be made upon a second and special enquiry.

Enquiries may be made by any library and by any registered reader of a state library and any other person of recognized position or doing serious research work. Each application must refer to one book only and each must bear the full title and address of the applicant, since, although he may be well known to the Royal Library, he may not be known to a library receiving the application through the union catalogue.

The catalogue now contains some 750,000 entries showing the locations of about $1\frac{1}{2}$ million copies in 30 libraries, and Dr. Molhuysen [B. 169, p. 204] justly claims it to be a monument of co-operation between Dutch libraries which was built by no constraint but out of a spirit of fellowship and from the conviction that it was the duty of Dutch libraries to serve the community at large.

During the years 1928, 1929, 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933, 1934 respectively 15,000; 16,800; 17,236; 20,372; 21,518; 21,938; 22,961 enquiries have been referred to the union catalogue, and each year about 60 per cent have been traced through it.

The official centre for international exchanges is also at the Royal Library where it was established in 1928. This will give information on all official Dutch publications.

It is of interest to note that the Royal Library receives many imperfectly stated applications, and considers that these should all be checked in local libraries more carefully than they are. It also receives many applications for "common" books and believes that not more than 1 application in 20 is for a rare book. It finds of great value the evidence of more than one copy of each common book in the union catalogue.

Special Libraries [B. 166, 167].

An interesting complement to the co-operation among the research libraries (which are mainly humanistic in scope) is to be seen at the library of the Technische Hoogeschool, Delft. Here in 1928 the Librarian, Dr. A. Korevaar, who had been impressed by the union catalogue at the Rothschild Library, Frankfurt, started to compile a union catalogue of, and to establish a system

of co-operation among, Dutch technical and commercial libraries ; chiefly, of course, of such libraries which are open to the public, but including some of factories, firms and private institutions and even of private individuals. There are now 33 libraries contributing to the catalogue which is known as the *Centrale Technische Catalogus voor Nederland*.

In the first place Dr. Korevaar approached as many appropriate libraries and institutions as possible, both in person and by circularizing a pamphlet pointing out the value of a union catalogue and inter-lending. Since most of these libraries were small and not well organized or staffed, they were far from resenting suggestions for the improvement of their work, but welcomed them. He therefore also issued in 1928 two other pamphlets, one giving a short list of cataloguing rules and one directions for contributing entries to the union catalogue. The work so started has met with an excellent response as is shown by the number of libraries in the scheme and the development and use of the union catalogue. The centre of the system is in the Library of the Technische Hoogeschool at Delft where the union catalogue is kept and which is the information bureau for the system. The centre's main purpose is to trace books, and although it will sometimes give information of a strictly bibliographical kind, it sets out definitely not to give other information, not to compete with technical information bureaux. The following details show the use and growth of the catalogue:—1. Entries in the catalogue. 2. Number of libraries contributing. 3. Number of enquiries received at the centre. 4. Number traced through the catalogue :

	1	2	3	4
1928-29	25,000	16	706	165
1929-30	34,400	29	999	158
1930-31	44,400	31	1,328	255
1931-32	47,300	33	1,973	304
1932-33	49,800	33	2,277	454
1933-34	55,600	33	2,222	403

A large union catalogue at the Ethnologies Instituut, Utrecht, is described by L. J. P. Gaskin in *L.A.R.*, July, 1934, 196-7.

Public Libraries.

There is no organized system of co-operation on a large scale among the Public Libraries. This is partly because they are usually not "free," but chiefly because they are the property of many different interests. But they lend freely to each other and especially to other libraries within the same town, and they are kept in close contact with each other by their strong and active Central Association. Some Public Libraries belong directly to one or other of the schemes mentioned above. So, for instance, the chief Public Library in the Keizersgracht, Amsterdam, sends entries for its sociological books to the union catalogue at the Hague and lends directly to the research libraries, and borrows from them through the library of Amsterdam university. Other libraries participate indirectly in these schemes, borrowing from libraries in them through the medium of the nearest library which is a member of either scheme.

SWITZERLAND

[B. p. 346]

A good account of Swiss libraries is that given in B. 175. Switzerland is politically a highly decentralized country. It is small, but is divided into 22 cantons each having much political autonomy, a history and traditions which, it is often proud to feel, give it definite characteristics of its own and mark it off from the others. Within each canton the communes again enjoy a good deal of autonomy. Although central control is developing, the Federal Government still have very little power in all that relates to local government, each canton is itself almost solely responsible for this and has organized and developed, for example, its educational machinery, including its libraries, just as it pleased. There is no Federal Ministry of Education and no Federal legislation affecting libraries. But a condition of political de-centralization seems not unfavourable to organized schemes of national library co-operation, Germany supplies one example and Switzerland another.

As in most Continental countries, lending from Swiss libraries dates back to early times. It is a general practice of which there

is an unbroken tradition. One of the first things done by the Government of the Republic of 1798 was to take precautions to ensure the safety of libraries and to declare them to be an affair of the State. In 1800 a report of the Minister Ph. A. Stapfer showed that there were about 100 public libraries, and proposed the creation of departmental libraries, a national library, and a national union catalogue. The obligation of "copyright deposit" was decreed and an Inspector General of libraries appointed. And although a change of Government brought these projects to little, the various cantons did at this time create learned libraries as educational establishments of the same importance as colleges and universities in the field of higher education, and with the purpose of serving a wider public than that of their local community. Alongside these developed numerous town-libraries of a mixed character, half scientific, half popular: and the usual "special" libraries, including libraries of institutions and societies and industries of all kinds: and all these, with the seven university libraries, were mainly of a research nature.

In addition, grew up popular libraries for general instruction and recreation, and the small "bibliothèques scolaires, pour la jeunesse, populaires, paroissiales," etc., sometimes founded by communes and sometimes by private individuals. These became very numerous but were so inadequate and unequally distributed that to develop them the Swiss Library Association created in 1920 "La Bibliothèque pour tous" which is subsidized by the state and the cantons, and which from its headquarters in Berne serves the smallest parishes, through its 7 regional dépôts, by supplying boxes of books on loan.

The research libraries vary so greatly in proprietorship and service that in attempting to consider them as a national system M. Godet says [B. 183, p. 358] "Il n'y a pas un régime, en réalité: il y en a autant que de bibliothèques." In the chief towns the largest libraries are sometimes cantonal, sometimes communal and sometimes municipal, and the university libraries are usually amalgamated with the town libraries. Moreover, there is rarely any migration of personnel from one canton to another, because of politics, language, pension rights, and so on. Some of the effects of this are ill, but many are good. M.

Godet points out [B. 183, pp. 363-4] that the originality and intensity of cantonal life are a great force in Swiss life and one of the secrets of its political health: and the autonomy and healthy rivalry between cantons has resulted in a progressive spirit in the libraries.

The problem is, therefore, to co-ordinate all these libraries without affecting their independence. This cannot be done by the state: the only body capable of effecting it is the Library Association, which, founded in 1897, has already done much. It is the only link between the librarians, and its committee is really an inter-cantonal council for the welfare of Swiss libraries as a whole. The Association has already obtained much for libraries, reductions in postages, customs duties and the price of books. It has published a union catalogue of periodicals in Swiss libraries (1st ed., 1904; 2nd, 1911; 3rd, foreign periodicals only, 1925), a code of cataloguing rules, and it has organized library sections in a national exhibition. It was responsible for the union catalogue of additions to Swiss libraries, it founded the "Bibliothèque pour tous" and it organized the inter-cantonal loan, obtaining the concession of free postage on books so lent. It is preparing a union catalogue of incunabula in Switzerland and it publishes a bulletin and other works on librarianship. Its activity has also brought library matters into general prominence and, within the profession, has stimulated interest in technical matters and done much to promote professional progress.

The following statistics indicate the development of libraries in Switzerland (the figures for 1934 are only approximate):—

1. Number of libraries. 2. Total number of volumes. 3. Number of volumes per 100 inhabitants. 4. Libraries with over 50,000 volumes.

	1	2	3	4
1868	2,006	2,490,312	94	9
1911	5,798	9,384,943	248	27
1934	?	15,000,000	375	35

The largest libraries are the University Library at Bâle with 850,000 vols.; the Central Library at Zürich with 800,000 vols.; and the National Library at Berne with over 600,000 vols.

Co-operation.

The fact that Swiss libraries are so largely independent of each other has resulted in a multiplication of collections and a scattering of forces which has emphasized the need for co-operation and a certain amount of centralization. The chief developments to these ends are:—

1. The foundation of the Library Association in 1897.
2. Local schemes of co-operation and amalgamation as in Geneva, Zürich, Bâle, Neuchâtel and Berne.
3. The foundation of the National library at Berne in 1895, the development of intercantonal lending and the compilation of union catalogues.

Local Schemes.

Geneva. The centre for co-operation between Genevan libraries is the "Bibliothèque publique et universitaire" which, like most Continental university libraries, serves the general public of its district. It contains over 500,000 volumes and is supported by the state and by the town as well as by its own funds.

In 1918 the University Library started a system of co-operation which now includes over 50 of the libraries of Geneva, most of which have agreed to lend and all have agreed to be open for reference purposes to each other's readers. The scheme included the compilation of a union catalogue to which 53 libraries now contribute. The propaganda work for this was done by the University Library, which also drew up a cataloguing code and issued it in typescript in 1919 to all the libraries. These send their entries to the University Library which checks them and sorts them into one sequence with a copy of its own catalogue. At intervals since 1920 lists of additions to the catalogue (*Acquisitions récentes des Bibliothèques de Genève*)—2,842 titles in 1934—are printed by a Multigraph and Adrema machine on one side of sheets of thin paper and issued to the contributing libraries.

These lists are now cut up and the titles incorporated in the national union catalogue at Berne.

Apart from the libraries of the League of Nations, and the International Labour Office the system includes all important libraries of a public nature in Geneva.

The University is the centre of the system, which it has financed out of its own funds aided by a small grant from the Société Académique: the constituent libraries make no financial contribution; the whole service being quite free. Applicants telephone, write or call at the University and then, having traced a book, make their own arrangements for borrowing it. The University uses a messenger with a bicycle to collect books wanted by its own readers. When a book is not traced through the catalogue, small libraries usually do not apply directly to sources outside Geneva for it, but do so through the University Library. A section of the union catalogue, that of periodicals, was printed in 1923 [B. 185]. It includes only the important current periodicals (not including newspapers) taken by 53 libraries, giving only the titles and locations, and press-marks of those taken at the University. It is arranged in two sequences of which the second consists of publications of societies. It is noteworthy that of the 3,249 periodicals included, 2,662 or 82 per cent are found in one library only, 450 or 14 per cent in 2 libraries, 97 or 3 per cent in 3 libraries, and only 40 or 1 per cent in 4 or more libraries. The few duplicates are mostly Genevan publications or publications which different libraries receive by exchange with the same institutions. In general the libraries in the system lend on the same terms as the University library, to any individual of recognized position or engaged in study, in the canton, and to any library in the rest of Switzerland. The University library, and probably many of the others, will also lend to libraries abroad.

To trace a book not in its own stock the University applies to the National Library in Berne unless it has good reason to believe it to be in another library, in that case it applies directly to this library. If the book is not at Berne nor recorded in the union catalogue there, the University issues an enquiry card for which bears a list of 20 libraries headed by an instruction to

forward the card to the libraries which have been underlined, and completed by a request that the card is finally to be returned to the University [*see* B. 45, pp. 268-70].

The University library has lent and borrowed as follows: the numbers in parentheses are of borrowers under 1 and of borrowing or lending libraries elsewhere:—

1. Volumes lent within Geneva. 2. Volumes lent to Swiss libraries. 3. Volumes borrowed from Swiss libraries. 4. Volumes lent to foreign libraries. 5. Volumes borrowed from foreign libraries. 6. Total lent to other libraries. 7. Total borrowed from other libraries.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1925	15,464(1,355)	553(29)	260(23)	27(10)	3(1)	580	263
1926	16,742(1,419)	623(31)	251(23)	13(11)	5(2)	636	256
1927	15,439(1,376)	758(33)	545(29)	41(11)	20(7)	799	565
1928	16,182(1,427)	724(26)	433(26)	35(11)	15(7)	759	448
1929	15,551(1,608)	857(31)	464(29)	30(14)	4(2)	887	468
1930	17,703(1,630)	936(34)	458(31)	48(10)	15(6)	984	473
1931	20,756(1,682)	939(35)	580(26)	59(21)	25(9)	998	605
1932	21,048(1,834)	934(42)	602(26)	29(23)	30(11)	963	632
1933	22,362(1,951)	1,142(37)	716(29)	38(15)	47(9)	1,180	763
1934	22,754(1,980)	1,247(39)	707(33)	33(16)	41(4)	1,280	748

It may be noted further that under heading 1 the figures for 1905, 1910, 1915, 1920 are respectively 2,104(237), 4,204(400), 5,732(529), 10,380(1,110) and, as an indication of the Library's service to the general public of the town, the numbers of borrowers who were members of the university in the years 1931, 1932, 1933, 1934, were only 513: 574: 603: 596 out of 1,682: 1,834: 1,951: 1,980 respectively. From 1930 the University has recorded its borrowings from other Genevan libraries. These are as follows, and are not included in the above table. 1930—458 volumes from 31 libraries. 1931—376 from 28. 1932—469 from 27. 1933—582 from 29. 1934—594 from 38.

In 1931, 1932, 1933, 1934, the Library has received 1,156: 964: 1,285: 1,720 enquiry cards from other Swiss libraries, of which it has forwarded 658, 540, 700, 995, and dealt with the remainder. On its part it has issued 293, 340, 586, 693 enquiry cards in these years.

Zürich. The system in Zürich, which seems to be the oldest of its kind in Switzerland, consists of co-operation and amalgamation. As early as 1900 the town libraries joined in compiling a union catalogue which is housed at the Central Library and now includes over 20 of the chief libraries of the town. In 1914 the town library, the cantonal library, and four other libraries were fused into one, henceforward known as the Central Library. This, which is also the University library, is the second largest library in the country; it is open to the public and is the centre of the local scheme of co-operation. It has issued a cataloguing code to all libraries contributing to the union catalogue and is the intermediary for loans between these and other libraries. As the University library at Geneva, it uses the National library at Berne first, when enquiring for books, and then issues its own enquiry cards.

At present 10 libraries contribute to the local union catalogue of additions which since 1931 is published 6 times a year. In 1929 (July–December), 1930, 1931 (January–June), 1932 and 1933, the entries were 3,553 : 9,541 : 3,263 : 10,200 and 5,516 respectively. To the union catalogue at Berne the Library sent in 1930, 1931, 1932, 1933, respectively, 4,599 : 5,400 : 5,334 : 6,824 titles, and to the union catalogue of important additions 172, 216, 175 and 184 titles in the same years.

The following statistics are of the Central Library, Zürich :—

<i>Books Borrowed from other libraries</i>	1930	1931	1932	1933
Within the canton	339	264	227	213
Elsewhere in Switzerland ..	1,353	1,307	1,125	1,069
Abroad	175	147	168	138
Total	1,867	1,718	1,520	1,420
Search cards issued	577	589	524	575
Number of works sought ..	834	770	749	799
" found	575	588	482	522
	(68.9 %)	(76.3 %)	(69.7 %)	(65.3 %)
Search cards received	1,682	2,235	2,601	2,962
Number of works sought ..	3,008	3,859	4,439	4,574
" reported	1,564	1,927	2,159	2,248
	(51.9 %)	(49.6 %)	(48.6 %)	(49.1 %)

<i>Books lent by post</i>	1930	1931	1932	1933
Within the canton	772	708	565	552
Elsewhere in Switzerland	3,302	3,703	4,433	4,342
Abroad	236	157	205	107
Total	4,310	4,568	5,203	5,001

The Central Library reports (Bericht der Zentralbibliothek Zürich, 8, for 1930-1, 1932, p. 22) that the number of books borrowed from abroad is decreasing because of the high cost of postage, on an average Fr. 4.50 per volume (total of postage each way), when books are sent as registered parcels, as they normally are. They could be sent more cheaply as unregistered printed matter, but this the library does not wish to do.

Bâle. The University library at Bâle, the largest library in the country, is also the town library and has incorporated the libraries of eleven local institutions and societies. It is also the centre of the local system of co-operation. It had been decided in the early years of the century to make a union catalogue of libraries in the town, but lack of funds held this up until after the War. Then a number of unemployed teachers who were paid for the work from unemployment funds, were given a short instruction in cataloguing and sent out to over 100 local libraries to copy their catalogues. This was done in a few years and condensed into a single catalogue on cards of international size. The University then obtained a full time assistant for keeping the catalogue up-to-date, which he does by the co-operation of the libraries. The general procedure is similar to that at Geneva and Zürich.

In *Neuchâtel* the town library is also the University library and has incorporated the libraries of several local institutions. It compiles in one list notices of the additions to its own and 21 other libraries in the town. In *Berne* the town and university libraries were merged into one in 1905; and in *Solothurn* (*Soleure*) the Stadtbibliothek and Kantonsbibliothek have been amalgamated to form the Zentralbibliothek.

The National Library, Berne. As noted above, the proposals

for a national library in 1800 came to nothing : and, constituted as it is of 22 small states, it is not surprising that Switzerland has had no national library until recent times. A central Federal library (chiefly of administrative books) was created in 1849, but it was not until 1894 that an act creating the National Library at Berne was passed. The purpose of this library was to collect *Helvetica* published since 1848 : the town library at Lucerne (created 1812) received a state grant for collecting earlier *Helvetica* : but in 1911 the task of collecting all *Helvetica* was given to the National Library. It is, in addition, a general library, and is a free lending as well as reference library for the Swiss general public. Its function and position were again set out in the Federal Law of September 29th, 1911. It relates to the "Département de l'Intérieur" and is controlled by a commission of 9 including representatives from different parts of the country and of the 3 national languages.

The country has no "legal deposit" law, but since 1915 most Swiss publishers (now 220 out of 260) voluntarily deposit their books in the National Library, and in return have free notices of them in "*Le livre en Suisse*," an arrangement similar to that at the Deutsche Bücherei, Leipzig. [B. 23, p. 205 and R.d.B. 1928, 298-301].

Union Catalogues and Information Bureau.

The project for a union catalogue which had been shelved for a century was revived by H. Escher in 1905 [B. 177] and by H. Barth [B. 173] in April, 1907. A few months later the National Council asked the Federal Council to reconsider the law of 1894 on the National Library : and, on this occasion, the Library Association sent a memorandum (November 10th, 1908) to the Federal Council saying that it was a national duty not only to collect *Helvetica* at the National Library but to centralize bibliographical information there. The Association proposed a national union catalogue as the chief need and declared itself ready to submit a complete programme when called upon.

In 1910 the matter was again before the National Council, and again a petition for a union catalogue was sent ; signed by over 20 heads of the chief libraries in the country and over 500 professors, teachers and others prominent in the educational

world. The project was well received in Parliament but the resolution on it was cautiously worded to no more effect than that "the duties of the National library may be extended to include other bibliographical tasks," and that the Federal Council should be asked to consider the advisability of extending the union catalogue of Helvetica, provided for by the law of June 28th, 1894, but so far not begun, to a general union catalogue.

On January 24th, 1913, the Département de l'Intérieur asked the Library Association to submit a scheme, with estimate of costs, for a general union catalogue, indicating which libraries should be asked to participate: and, further, granting 1,500 francs for practical work in preparing the scheme. With this fund the Association compiled a specimen union catalogue which formed part of the National Exhibition in 1914, and from experience so gained submitted a detailed report on September 17th, 1914, by which time the War had come and immediate prospect of fulfilling the scheme was necessarily abandoned. After the War it was at first difficult to revive the scheme, but the need for it became greater than ever, for of all classes perhaps none was so badly hit as the student. They had to economize, and so had the government: and the provision of a union catalogue was recognized to be a move for efficiency and economy.

On September 26th, 1926, M. Godet gave to the Library Association a re-statement of the case, which was approved by the Association and published in January, 1927 [B. 182]. That the Swiss libraries were largely specialized had been shown by H. Barth who in 1907 [B. 173] had collected all the entries under D (over 20,000 in all) in 30 libraries in German Switzerland of which 15 were in Zürich. An analysis of these entries showed that 84 per cent represented single copies, 11·5 per cent two, 2·5 per cent three, and only 2 per cent four or more. The experimental union catalogue made by the Association in 1914 covered only entries under DA-DAZ (14,965) and Albert de Haller (1,404) but it included libraries of all kinds in all parts of Switzerland. Of the DA-DAZ entries 60·33 per cent represented single copies, 25 per cent two, 7 per cent three, and 7·67 per cent four or more. Albert de Haller was deliberately chosen as the

national author whose works would be undoubtedly most evenly distributed throughout the country, but even so 34.5 per cent of the entries were for single copies.

These facts showed that the long established inter-lending has resulted in Switzerland, as in Germany and elsewhere, in "semi-specialized" libraries, and established to Swiss librarians the necessity of a union catalogue, for these had found by experience that printed catalogues and search-lists were quite inadequate to trace books.

In general plan the 1914 project of the Library Association for a union catalogue was directly modelled on the Prussian scheme. The catalogue was to be made in one copy and on cards and to include the whole stock, except minor literature, of the libraries concerned. On one point—in that it included more libraries—it was a greater task than the Prussian, for it is not the size of libraries in a scheme but their number and variety which makes for difficulty. The foundation of the catalogue was to be made by cutting up all printed catalogues, pasting the entries on cards, sorting these into one sequence and circulating the resultant catalogue in batches to the libraries concerned. The method was a combination of the Dutch and Prussian. It was decided that the work must be centralized in a great, and preferably the National, library, and the cost was estimated at Fr. 12,000 annually for 25 years and a very small annual charge afterwards. After the War it was clear both that this estimate of Fr. 12,000 would have to be raised to Fr. 20,000 and that this income could not be obtained.

In 1925 M. H. Escher proposed [B. 187, and 182, p. 11] that the Library Association should consider the publication of a union list of additions. This was done, but as it was estimated that this, too, would cost Fr. 20,000 a year, the plan was not adopted. Many libraries which would have had to be included could make no financial contribution. Here Switzerland is at a disadvantage compared with such countries as Prussia and Sweden, where the chief libraries belong to the State: hardly any two of the chief Swiss libraries belong to the same authority.

In spite of this, the beginnings of a national union catalogue consisted of a catalogue of additions to a few libraries which

was organized and put into effect by the National Library in 1924. From January 1st of that year has appeared the *Bulletin collectif des acquisitions importantes des principales bibliothèques suisses* as a supplement to the National Library's own monthly Bulletin *Le livre en Suisse*.

At first 9 libraries participated, now there are 12, including the National Library. It records the addition to these libraries of all books of importance, all books costing more than 20 francs, rare books or books of interest, bibliographical works, all foreign books and all periodicals, and its cost is met by the participating libraries. The Bulletin itself *Le livre en Suisse* contains notices of all Swiss books and books relative to Switzerland received at the National Library, and is, therefore, a fairly complete national bibliography. It began in 1901 and an alphabetical index is issued annually. Both the union list and the national list are at present confined to additions published since 1900.

It is of interest to note that in the *Bulletin collectif* between January 1st, 1924, and June, 1926, 1,308 books were announced, of these 75 per cent were represented by one copy, 18 per cent by two, and only 7 per cent by three or more. In the same period the same libraries received 740 periodicals of which the corresponding percentages were 66, 23 and 11. These figures, for modern additions, confirm the conclusions drawn from the figures given above for older books.

In addition to the above mentioned, the National Library prepares and issues the following current catalogues :—1. *Catalogue des périodiques suisses*, 1917 and 1925 with supplements to 1930. 2. *Répertoire méthodique des publications suisses ou relatives à la Suisse* (German title *Systematisches Verzeichnis*, etc.) is a cumulation of titles published in *Le Livre en Suisse*, 1901–20, 1921–30, etc. 3. *Bibliographie scientifique suisse*, 1925, etc.

M. Godet's scheme, printed in 1927 [B. 182], forms the basis of the plan which was adopted. It was proposed to limit participation to "scientific" libraries but to include as many of these as possible. It was decided to invite, in the first instance, only the 7 university libraries, the Polytechnic, the cantonal, municipal and other "public" libraries of importance. In 1911 an enquiry

to libraries of over 20,000 volumes had showed that 28 of these were willing to join an interlending scheme and contribute to a union catalogue of their additions.

It was estimated that together these libraries would add about 20,000 books a year, and that the annual cost of unifying entries for these would be 8,000 francs (Staff, 7,000 : equipment, 660 : miscellaneous, 340). This pre-supposed that the central office would be in a large library where a trained librarian could be absorbed for part-time in other work and where premises would be free. The reasons given for choosing the National Library may be summarized as follows :—1. Most other libraries could make no financial contribution to the scheme. 2. Their chief contribution must be in effective co-operation. This is all to be expected of them : they could not join the scheme if they had to contribute financially. 3. The central service must, therefore, be supported by the State. 4. It is, therefore, natural that the centre shall be in the State's own library. 5. The National Library should also be the centre because it has the largest collection of national literature and it publishes national bibliographies. It is in the capital and centre of the country and has already begun a union catalogue. Foreign libraries will naturally apply to it, and, finally, the Library Association wishes it to be the centre. That it was necessary to set out such reasons may throw some light on the nature of the Swiss library world. Where there is no central control, even the most obvious step for centralization demands extreme caution.

M. Godet's scheme was accepted by the Federal Government which voted a grant of 7,000 francs for it in December, 1927. This grant is annually revised on the basis of the previous year's budget : the average cost of the catalogue being now about 15,000 francs a year.

In 1928 M. Godet and one of his staff visited Berlin, Frankfurt and the Hague to study library centres and union catalogues there, and on their return the Swiss Bureau began work at the National Library on July 15th, 1928. In answer to a circular sent from the Bureau on that date, 21 important libraries joined the scheme. As these included the Central Library at Zürich and the University at Geneva bringing with them the libraries of

their respective local systems, the number of libraries in the national scheme on December 31st, 1928, was 89: by the same date 15 libraries had contributed 11,743 entries to the national union catalogue. By December 31st, 1929, the number of libraries had risen to 118 (including 21 centralized in Neuchâtel) and the entries in the catalogue to 42,969 with 5,700 additional entries from Geneva for stock received before 1920. So that after 18 months' experience it seemed that the scheme which had been intentionally called "minimum" in 1928 could be extended to a project for a complete union catalogue of the chief Swiss libraries.

As a further nucleus for this the National Library had the catalogue made by Hans Barth in 1914 and all the printed catalogues Barth used for the work: these were presented by the Zürich library. The National Library had asked contributory libraries to supply it with copies of all their other printed catalogues, and, following the example of Holland, started on December 1st, 1928, to send these to the men's prison at Witzwil, to be cut up and each entry pasted on a card. By the end of the first month 6,000 cards had been received from the prison, and by the end of December, 1930, 215,000 cards were received and the work was being done promptly, cheaply and well. The prisoners do about 5,000 cards a week or 200,000 a year, since they are allowed 40 weeks at the work each year: it is estimated that the task will be finished in 15 years from January, 1929.

The entries of old titles dealt with at the prison are, on receipt at the library, amalgamated with the entries for recent additions contributed by libraries. The whole are arranged in a manner somewhat similar to that used in the *Sammelkatalog* at Frankfurt. There are two series, one of books giving the authors' names and the other of anonymous literature. In the first the arrangement is alphabetical by authors' surnames sub-divided, as is usual, by first names, which are not ignored as at Frankfurt. In the second sequence the arrangement is alphabetical by titles.

At the end of 1933 there were 123 libraries affiliated to the catalogue which contained 907,768 entries; of these 118,590 were supplied by the libraries and were for recent additions, 22,690 were supplied by the National Library from entries in the

Bulletin collectif etc., and 766,488 were prepared at the Witzwil prison.

The Bureau, which is an integral part of the National Library, at present has a staff of 2 only. Its duties are similar to those of the Bureau at Berlin. It manages and develops the union catalogue and deals with enquiries. It is in relation with all Swiss libraries and will make special enquiries for books not in its union catalogues both to libraries in Switzerland and abroad. It will also make arrangements for the supply of photographic and other copies, and of bibliographies. Most of its work is done by correspondence, but enquiries are received and dealt with by telephone and in person.

Since 1927, and as a result of representations made by the Library Association, the Federal Mail has allowed books to be sent on inter-library loan post-free, in parcels not exceeding 2½ kilos each. It is interesting to note that the Association obtained this concession largely on the ground of economy, claiming that such interlending would prevent the unnecessary purchase of books in the state and cantonal libraries and would therefore effect a saving in public funds.

Most Swiss libraries are willing to lend books directly to foreign libraries and have practised such loans for many years.

The following statistics are of volumes lent by the National Library since 1918. They include loans directly to individuals as well as to libraries :—

	1918	1919	1920	1921
Within Berne	14,448	13,412	13,041	14,528
Elsewhere in Switzerland	8,583	8,626	11,590	7,896
Abroad	8	29	34	34
Total	23,039	22,167	24,665	22,458
	1922	1923	1924	1925
Within Berne	14,547	14,670	15,774	17,335
Elsewhere in Switzerland	8,867	8,523	8,951	8,276
Abroad	48	135	91	25
Total	23,462	23,328	24,816	25,636

	1926	1927	1928	1929
Within Berne	16,873	16,732	19,656	15,889
Elsewhere in Switzerland	9,071	11,182	11,742	11,577
Abroad	87	49	113	166
Total	26,031	27,963	31,511	37,632
	1930	1931	1932	1933
Within Berne	20,130	20,930	32,170	34,877
Elsewhere in Switzerland	12,568	12,208	17,006	18,629
Abroad	278	172	166	262
Total	32,976	33,310	49,342	53,768

The National Library lends much more than it borrows. Its complete borrowings for 1930-33 are :—

	1930	1931	1932	1933	1930-33
From Swiss Libraries ..	285	140	296	293	1,014
„ German „ ..	11	3	4	13	31
„ Belgian „ ..	—	—	—	4	4
Total	296	143	300	310	1,049

CHAPTER IX

GREAT BRITAIN

[B. pp. 347-48]

As there are many accounts of the British library system available for English readers it is unnecessary to say much about it here. It may, of course, be roughly divided into : (1) the state and academic libraries, (2) the public libraries, (3) special libraries ; and each of these is open to sub-division. In the first group is a number of large governmental libraries but these are outside our scope since they are, more perhaps than similar libraries in most other countries, largely restricted to the use of government officials. A few are open to the general public, and some, notably the libraries of the Science Museum and the Ministry of Agriculture, lend books. Then come the six copyright libraries, first the British Museum to which publishers *must* send a copy of every new book, and then the Bodleian (Oxford University), Cambridge University Library, National Library of Scotland, National Library of Wales, and Trinity College, Dublin, which may obtain copies of new books *on request* to the publishers. The National Library of Wales and Cambridge University have restricted systems of lending ; the others do not lend.

There are over 300 separate libraries of universities and colleges, and a number of other special learned libraries. Most of these lend. The British Museum is entirely supported by the State ; the Universities, and hence their libraries, are supported by their own funds, including students' fees, by grants from their localities, and by grants from the State.

The next group, the Public Libraries, is to be divided into Municipal and County Libraries. They are both entirely supported by local rates : they all lend to their own readers, and many will lend to any other library ; they are all open freely to anyone for reference purposes. There are some 547 municipal library systems (of which 67 are in Scotland and 28 in Ireland)

which all have lending libraries of serious literature as well as fiction; and in most of the large towns there are excellent learned collections. Many of them have special libraries for children and special technical and commercial libraries. The County Libraries, which date officially only from 1919, now have 113 systems in Great Britain. Each has a main centre, and together these distribute books, largely by the aid of voluntary helpers, to about 17,000 local centres in villages and hamlets.

Neither the Universities, nor the Public or County libraries are subject to State or any other central control.

Lastly, there are the "Special" libraries, that is, libraries of many kinds other than those mentioned above. They are, no doubt, as numerous and varied as similar libraries in other countries. Information on them may be gained from B. 188, 189, 190, 219.

Co-operation. The practice of inter-library lending may be divided into two eras separated by the foundation in 1916 of the Central Library for Students, now the National Central Library.

Before 1916 there was no organized co-operation, and very little inter-library lending. Some of the modern universities occasionally lent a book to another similar library or to a scholar of another university who made direct application. Many of the special libraries lent books by post to their own members and perhaps occasionally to other libraries. The Public Libraries lent very little. Even as recently as 1926 the late Walter Powell, then City Librarian of Birmingham, in speaking of inter-library loans in Great Britain [B. 34], chose as his text Chapter 72 of Horrebows's "Natural History of Iceland," headed "Concerning snakes," and containing only the words: "No snakes of any kind are to be met throughout this island." Walter Powell went on to say that certain forms of lending were practised but that inter-library lending from reference collections was very limited and that little had been done to organize the work or to state a policy concerning it. Birmingham itself, likely to be at least as forward as any in the matter of inter-library lending, had, up to a few years before 1926, lent no book from its reference library.

The National Central Library and Co-operation since 1916. The

development of co-operation between libraries has been so largely bound up with the National Central Library that an account of this is necessary to an understanding of the present position.

As is generally known, Great Britain is the only country which has a considerable library service but no state supported lending service. The British Museum is for reference purposes only; by law, no book may leave its buildings. The State maintains this national reference service, but whereas all other national libraries lend, and some are also active centres for national schemes of library co-operation, the British Museum is unable to undertake any of this work, and as, before the coming of the National Central Library, neither the State nor anyone else had made provision for it elsewhere, there was, before 1916, no library acting as a national lending library and no centre for the organization of library co-operation. Actually, of course, there was no such library or centre for a few years after 1916, since the National Central Library began in a very small way and developed gradually.

The Library was formed as the Central Library for Students largely through the activities of Dr. Albert Mansbridge. In 1915 Professor W. G. S. Adams, in his well-known "Report on Library provision and policy" [B. 197] stated the need for a large central lending library, demonstrating that it "would be an institution of great public utility." The Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees were approached by the Central Joint Advisory Committee on Tutorial Classes, and in December, 1915, the Trustees decided to make a grant for the establishment of the Central Library for Students. A note on the pre- and early history of the Library is given in B. 210.

The fact that the idea of the Library came not from librarians, but from other men and institutions also working for a better national education; and also that these men brought their idea into effect unaided by librarians, is interesting as an indication of the lack of interest in a central institution, which is to be expected in this country of local enterprise; and as an indication too, of how definitely the British Museum stands by itself as a reference library only, with little contact with the other libraries of the country. That the Library's prospects were enhanced from the

start by a grant from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees should be stressed, because the Trustees have also been very largely responsible for its subsequent maintenance and development. They have provided more than a third of its annual income; they enabled it to move into the premises at Galen Place, and they presented it in 1933 with the splendid building it now occupies.

The Library came into active existence in 1916, and then a small executive committee was formed on which there were two librarians, Dr. A. W. Pollard of the British Museum who also served as Honorary Librarian from 1921-26, and Mr. L. Stanley Jast of the Manchester Public Library. Work began on March 1st, 1916, and the first annual report is extremely interesting. The committee were well aware that they were embarking on a serious and extensive enterprise: "the conception of a library to meet the needs of all kinds of students is large, and it is clear that it can only be realized gradually and without undue haste." The Information Department was visualized from the start: "It is also evident that a central source of bibliographical information is much needed; therefore, it is the intention of the Library to meet this need, aided as it is by a panel of expert and representative advisers which is being extended to cover all departments of study. As lists of books are drawn up they will be supplied to all libraries needing and desiring them." The idea of a panel of advisers is met with elsewhere at the inception of central libraries of this kind, as, for example, at the Bibliothèque Nationale Paris, and the National Library at Rome, but, as here, it rarely seems to develop. In the case of the National Central Library the panel has probably fallen into disuse because the Library has been compelled to restrict its purchases to a selection only of those books for which it has been asked. It printed one list of books, on Sociology, in 1926, which was a catalogue of its own section on that subject, not necessarily a "Best books" list.

For the future the committee felt that: "The development of the Library will depend largely upon its relationships with existing libraries" to which it will be "complementary and supplementary." "It will be complementary to big national libraries which do not send books out" [e.g. the British Museum, Bodleian,

etc.]. It will supplement others. "Its strength will to a great extent be derived from the fact that it will work in harmony with local libraries, and by so doing win their confidence and such support as they are able legitimately to give. The local library . . . is a kind of popular college, to which readers can resort for that personal . . . guidance which is so valuable." This was a wise insistence on the indispensable nature, the all-importance, of local libraries and the personal service they give. It showed that the Central Library was only subsidiary to these, a support to them, and that it in no way supplanted any existing institution. This first report also noted that the intention of the Library to work through local libraries wherever possible "may induce the beginning of action to establish the same" in districts without a library at present, for although the Library undertook to serve students directly who had no access to a library, and even, for some years, allowed readers to select books from its shelves in person it was always its intention ultimately to receive applications only through other libraries. And, in spite of the name "for Students" the Library received requests from other libraries almost from its inception; in its second year 3 libraries applied, and in its third, 10. Unfortunately, details of these are not given until the Report for 1920-21. In 1916-17 the Library issued 2,005 volumes as follows:—

To 93 Individual students	255 volumes
„ 59 Groups of students..	1,270 „
„ 18 Societies, Institutions, etc...	480 „

In 1921-22 the issues are analysed as follows:—

To 120 Urban Libraries	1,303 volumes
„ 22 County Libraries	1,003 „
„ 412 Groups of students	12,602 „
„ 1,758 Individual students	13,060 „
Total					27,968 „

This marks the peak year of issues to individual students; from this time on there is a more or less steady decrease in issues direct to individuals and a corresponding increase in issues to libraries. In 1926-27 the figures are:—

To 298 Urban Libraries	11,908	volumes
„ 54 County	„	16,401	„
„ 10 University	„	454	„
„ 20 Other	„	690	„
Total issues to 382 libraries						29,453	„
To 345 Adult Classes	12,889	volumes
„ 201 Individuals direct	2,662	„
Total to Classes and Individuals						15,551	„
Total issues						45,004	„

For 1933-34 the figures are :—

To 385 Urban Libraries	25,305	volumes
„ 56 County	„	20,739	„
„ 55 University	„	1,831	„
„ 119 Other	„	4,763	„
„ 39 Foreign	„	125	„
Total issues to 654 libraries						52,763	„
To Adult Classes direct	5,373	volumes
„ „ „ through 63 Urban Libraries	2,447	„
„ „ „ „ 34 County	„	3,143	„
„ Individuals direct	328	„
Total to Classes and Individuals						11,291	„
Total issues						64,054	„

In 1934-35 the total of issues has decreased to 61,187. This is due mainly to the work of the Regional Systems, and while these are being formed it is quite probable that the issues from the Central Library will slightly decrease, or increase to no great extent. When they have all been formed, and by their existence have increased the general demand for books, the Central Library may again be called on more extensively, both for books generally, and especially for expensive and out of the way books, and for bibliographical information.

By 1921 it had become quite clear that the Central Library was a library for libraries : “The relation between Public Libraries and the Central Library is one of the first importance. It

is becoming every day more evident that it is only when the Central Library works through the Public Libraries that it can fulfil its functions without waste and overlapping." [B. 207, 1920-21]. Furthermore, demands upon it were increasing so rapidly that the magnitude of the Library's task became apparent, and it was realized that a national lending library upon which all other libraries in the country could draw, and which should also be a centre of bibliographical information, ought to be a large and powerful institution in book stock, staff and general resources: it ought to be a large library comparable in strength with the national reference library, the British Museum.

Now the need for such an institution was immediate, but it was clear that although progress was good, nothing of the kind could be built up for many years: and, with this, came the extremely important realization that the only possible way of obtaining, in short time, an adequate book stock and sources of information, was to enlist the support of other libraries, to make an affiliation of other libraries which would agree to lend books and supply information at the request of the Central Library.

This realization was of the greatest importance since it led to the breaking down of the old conservative spirit opposing inter-library lending, and in so doing contributed to a change of policy in library activities and especially in the nature of reference libraries: and also because it led to a new principle about the Central Library, that it was not only impossible to centralize at short notice the whole work of national lending in this or any other one institution, but that it was undesirable to try to do so; and that the correct principle was to adopt a measure of decentralization.

Hence, from this time onwards the activities of the Central Library extend along two lines, of which the first may be called "internal" and the second "external." The first consists of the institutional development of the library, the growth of premises, stock, staff, income and work of the headquarters of the Central Library for Students, later called the National Central Library; the second consists of the creation and development of a system of co-operation between the libraries of the country.

In this second part the Library shares with many other libraries, and institutions, such as its own benefactor, the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, and the Universities Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation, the credit for what has been achieved. Some parts of the work were initiated by the Library, some with the assistance of the Library, and others quite independent of it ; but however begun, all have tended to become connected with it in some way or another, and to take their respective parts in a system of co-operation which is now a national system, and of which the Library is the centre.

This external development may be divided into 3 parts, the Outlier Libraries, the Universities, and the Regional Systems. The first practical steps to link up other libraries with the Central Library were made in 1922 when the Carnegie Trustees made grants to the libraries of the College of Nursing and the Royal Aeronautical Society on condition that these should lend books, when convenient to them, at the request of the Central Library. By 1925 there were 4 libraries affiliated to the Central Library in this way and the term " Outlier " had been adopted for them. The Outliers do not undertake to lend any book, but they agree to receive requests from the Central Library and to lend when possible. This, of course, has meant that the Library has not had to buy many books on those subjects covered by its Outliers ; and has had in them very valuable sources for the supply of information.

As time went on other libraries joined the scheme, some received grants—the Carnegie Trustees set aside £84,425 for this purpose, which was spent by 1932—others joined voluntarily, so that now there are 151 Outliers containing about 6 million volumes. The object has been to enlist especially those libraries having special collections not likely to be found elsewhere ; the total is made up of 95 special (including university and college), 41 Urban and 15 County libraries, and a glance at the list of Outliers in the last Annual Report of the Library will show that their resources are comprehensive and immensely strong. The development of the Outlier system is shown by the following figures of books lent by these libraries through the Central Library :—

1925-26—	362	books	were	lent	by	8	libraries
1926-27—	719	"	"	"	"	16	"
1927-28—	1,606	"	"	"	"	36	"
1928-29—	2,142	"	"	"	"	57	"
1929-30—	3,247	"	"	"	"	81	"
1930-31—	4,914	"	"	"	"	93	"
1931-32—	6,252	"	"	"	"	112	"
1932-33—	7,023	"	"	"	"	114	"
1933-34—	11,163	"	"	"	"	125	"
1934-35—	11,231	"	"	"	"	137	"

The Universities. The next development in our field was a system of co-operation between the Universities, of which the beginnings and first seven years' work are described in B. 62, 191, 213, 220, from which much of the following information is taken. Largely due to Prof. F. E. Sandbach of Birmingham University (who had been impressed by the German system) the Association of University Teachers decided in 1923 to institute a scheme of co-operation between the university libraries: later in the same year it formed a Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation, and in March, 1925, an Enquiry Office was opened at Birmingham University. Funds were provided by a grant of £50 from the Association, by another of £450 spread over 3 years from 1925 by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and by subscriptions from libraries. The office at Birmingham was transferred to the National Central Library in 1931.

During the time the office was at Birmingham enquiries were received as follows :—

1925 (March to December)	..	117
1926	..	377
1927	..	465
1928	..	497
1929	..	445
1930	..	551
1931 (January to September)	..	369
		<hr/>
		2,821

Of these 98 were cancelled : of the 2,723 which remained 2,007 or 75 per cent were successfully dealt with.

This percentage is very good, and although the total of applications may not seem high when compared with applications

received from Universities at the National Central Library, the value of the work done at Birmingham, where the office could only be inadequately accommodated and was worked single-handed and as a part-time task, cannot be over-estimated. For, before 1925, only a few of the Universities lent and very few lent abroad, but during the years 1925-31 no less than 171 institutions took part in the scheme and these included most of the Universities and Colleges in the Country. Enquiries were received from 16 foreign libraries, and 47 British libraries expressed willingness to lend books abroad: many books were actually lent to and borrowed from foreign libraries. The scheme had thus broken down much of the old prejudice against interlending in this country and had done much to destroy the feeling in other countries that we would not lend books abroad, a feeling which "had undoubtedly acted as a deterrent in the matter of intellectual co-operation between this country and others." [B. 213, p. 120.] It also did much to promote co-operation between University libraries and libraries of other kinds, for the object of the Office was to serve any serious worker and as far as it could cope with applications it was ready to extend its services and, naturally, lengthen its subscription list, as much as possible. Subscriptions were, of course, quite voluntary. The 171 institutions mentioned above include 61 British non-University institutions (in a total of 113 British institutions) and 18 foreign non-University institutions (in a total of 58 foreign institutions) and the statistics include applications from these. The figures given below from the National Central Library are only for applications from Universities and Colleges.

In October, 1931, the Enquiry Office was transferred to the National Central Library, and as University libraries had always been in the habit of applying to this, the total of enquiries received from Universities began at once to show a marked increase as the following table shows :—

1. Enquiries received from British Universities. 2. Number supplied from Universities. 3. Number supplied from National Central Library and its Outliers. 4. Number supplied from foreign libraries. 5. Total supplied and percentage of successes.

	1	2	3	4	5
1931 (Oct.-Dec.) ..	446	99	250	14	363—81 %
1932 ..	1,886	451	888	46	1,385—73 %
1933 ..	2,237	722	888	68	1,678—75 %
1934 (Jan.-Nov.) ..	2,837	940	1,148	66	2,154—75 %

These figures do not include enquiries which were subsequently cancelled by the enquirers, nor applications from foreign libraries (which are given below) but nevertheless the nett total of enquiries received in eleven months in 1934 is greater than the gross total for the whole period of 6 years and 7 months during which the Enquiry Office was at Birmingham. During this period the University libraries have lent, through the National Central Library, as follows :—

1931 (Oct.-Dec.)	217 volumes
1932	1,021 ..
1933	1,492 ..
1934 (Jan.-Nov.)	1,729 ..

Many of these loans have been to other Universities as noted above ; the rest have been to Public, special and foreign libraries. These figures are not the total of loans made by the Universities for there is some traffic in direct lending between them, and those Universities taking part in regional library systems have also lent to other libraries through their respective bureaux.

Another important piece of co-operative work which is due to the Universities' Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation is the Union list of Periodicals in the University libraries which has been described on pp. 101-2. Other union catalogues are being prepared by the Oxford Colleges, of books printed before 1641, and by the Cambridge Colleges, of books printed abroad from 1501-1600.

Regional Systems. The year 1927 saw the beginning of small systems of co-operation between neighbouring libraries, as that between the towns of Newark, Worksop and Mansfield, and that between Ipswich and Norwich and other East Anglian libraries. By 1931 there were several of these in different parts of the country, some consisting of no more than an agreement

between two libraries to lend to each other, but at least one (the first named above) being more elaborate and including the compilation of union catalogues and the use of printed forms. Further details of these may be seen in B. 8: they were spontaneous schemes, all formed by the librarians concerned in them and quite independent of each other and of the National Central Library, or any other institution.

Of even more significance was a system started in Cornwall, since it was "The first attempt to form a fully organized regional group." [B. 8:—Vol. 1. p. 160]. Seven (now 8) of the 9 borough libraries, and the County Library formed a system whereby the County Library acts as a local centre to which all the others first apply for books: the County Library only forwards applications to the National Central Library when they cannot be satisfied locally. A union catalogue of these libraries has been formed at the County Library.

This was the beginning of the regional system now practically covering England which had been one of the most prominent proposals in the Public Libraries Committee Report of 1927 [B. 215]. "We desire to see the library service go forward, by the linking up of these co-operating libraries into larger groups, each centred on some great library which may be conveniently described as a regional library; while all these . . . regions would again look to a common centre in the Central Library (i.e. the National Central Library) . . . We do not recommend the compulsory imposition of a regional organization. We do, however, cordially recommend it for voluntary adoption . . . and we believe that it is only by such co-operation that the national library service can attain the fullest development." [B. 215:—pp. 154–6]. In 1928 an able survey of the position for the formation of regional libraries was made by a committee of the County libraries and a report drawn up by Mr. R. Wright [B. 204].

In 1930 proposals were made for two more regional systems, first in the North and later in the West Midlands; and on January 1st, 1931, the Northern Regional Library system, with centre at Newcastle-on-Tyne, began its work, followed on April 1st, 1931, by the West Midlands Regional Library System, with centre at

Birmingham. The first of these covers the counties of Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland and Westmorland and the Cleveland district of Yorkshire. It opened with 31 libraries (now 34) made up of 20 urban, 3 county, 2 university and 6 special libraries. The Bureau was established in the library of the Literary and Philosophical Society in Newcastle, and it was decided that a union catalogue should be made in duplicate, one copy being kept at the Bureau and the other sent to the National Central Library. As in Cornwall, no library in the system applies directly to the National Central Library, but only to the Bureau which forwards to the National Central Library only those applications which cannot be dealt with in the area.

These systems owe their existence to the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees. In their policy of promoting co-operation between libraries, the Trustees had assisted in the formation of the Cornish system. The Trustees convened the Conference on November 29th, 1929, at which the proposal for the Northern Regional System was first considered, and they subsequently offered a grant of £3,000 to cover the cost of the system during its first 3 years. They later announced their willingness to make grants to other systems, and called the initial conferences (with one exception) which preceded the formation of each.

The Carnegie grant has made it possible for each system to meet the initial outlay; after this the systems become self-supporting, mainly by subscriptions from the constituent libraries but partly by voluntary assistance especially in the matter of free office accommodation for the Bureau, from the large libraries. Hence the actual formation of the systems, their management and their present support, is due to the librarians concerned; but the original idea, the original movements to bring the idea into being, and the initial finances without which the systems would not have come into existence, are due to the Carnegie Trustees.

It is noteworthy that the systems came into existence without any central control, but there were two strong links between the various systems even in the earliest years, one the Carnegie Trust, the Secretary of which has been a member of the

Committee of each system from its beginning, and the other the Librarian of the National Central Library who has similarly served on each Committee and has done invaluable service in keeping each informed of the experience and practice of other systems. On the initiative of the Librarian of the National Central Library a National Committee on Regional Library Co-operation, to act as an advisory body on matters concerning existing or potential regional areas, and to provide a link between regional bureaux and the National Central Library (where its headquarters are) was formed at the Library Association Conference at Cheltenham in 1931. It suggested areas for the formation of systems, and, with one amendment, these have so far been adopted.

There are now 8 regional systems in existence including 371 libraries (277 Urban, 48 County, 13 University, 33 Special) :—

1. Cornwall (1927) with centre at the County Library headquarters at Truro, and including 9 libraries. This system may possibly be absorbed in a larger one covering the south-western counties.
2. The Northern (1931) with centre at the Literary and Philosophical Society's library, Newcastle-on-Tyne, covering Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland and Westmorland, and including 34 libraries.
3. The West Midlands (1931) with centre at the Birmingham Public Library, covering Herefordshire, Shropshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire and Worcestershire and including 50 libraries.
4. The South-Eastern (1933) with centre in the National Central Library, London, although this is outside its area which does not include London but covers Berkshire, Buckinghamshire, Essex, Hertfordshire, Kent, Middlesex, Surrey, Sussex, and includes 61 libraries.
5. The East Midlands (1935) with centre at the Leicester Public Library, covering Leicestershire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Lincolnshire, Derbyshire, Rutlandshire, Norfolk and Suffolk, and including 38 libraries.
6. The North-Western (1935) covering Lancashire, Cheshire and the Isle of Man with centre at the Manchester Public Library and including 72 libraries.
7. Yorkshire (1935). This system is of a special kind. It is not, in the first instance, compiling a union catalogue and is relying on 4 centres to deal with applications. It contains 42 libraries. There is also

organized co-operation between the London Borough libraries and the library of the Guildhall, in all 29 libraries. A union catalogue, on cards, was begun in 1930 and is now nearly finished. It will probably contain some 200,000 different main entries [see p. 106]. Eight of the libraries are Outliers to the National Central Library and lend to any other library: in 1934-5 seventeen more have agreed to lend to others in the organization, but not to libraries outside it. The union catalogue and the headquarters of the organization are in (but are quite distinct from) the National Central Library.

A regional system had been adopted in Wales in 1931 with centre at the National Library at Aberystwyth, and sub-centre at the Public Library at Cardiff; this includes 65 libraries. In Scotland proposals for a scheme are now being considered as they also are in Ireland; but meanwhile these countries are served by the sister institutions to the National Central Library, the Scottish Central Library for Students at Dunfermline and the Irish Central Library for Students in Dublin. These three libraries are quite independent of each other but they work in close co-operation. In Northern Ireland there is already an un-official regional system with centre at the Belfast Public Library but the Irish Central Library for Students serves all Ireland.

Each section of the Welsh system is compiling a union catalogue but a duplicate of the Cardiff catalogue is being sent to Aberystwyth where there will thus be a copy of the complete catalogue for Wales. All the English systems except Yorkshire are compiling catalogues, and copies of all these are being sent to the National Central Library.

In this way the National Central Library should ultimately obtain a union catalogue which will include most libraries in the country. The total entries for the three bureaux now contributing are already over 435,000. These regional catalogues are all being made on paper slips or sheaves of standard size: slips are being used instead of cards to save labour and to make duplication possible. Labour is saved because the slips are supplied in sheets each containing 5 slips separated by a fine perforation, so that five entries may be typed at one insertion into

the typewriter. The editors of the various catalogues all use the "Cataloguing Rules compiled by . . . the Library Association and the American Library Association, 1930."

In the pioneer systems of the North and West Midlands, entries for the catalogue are supplied by the libraries concerned or copied by the staffs at the Bureaux. In the South-Eastern scheme there is a carefully organized system for obtaining the entries, which is outlined on pp. 96-98, and which will probably be followed by the other bureaux.

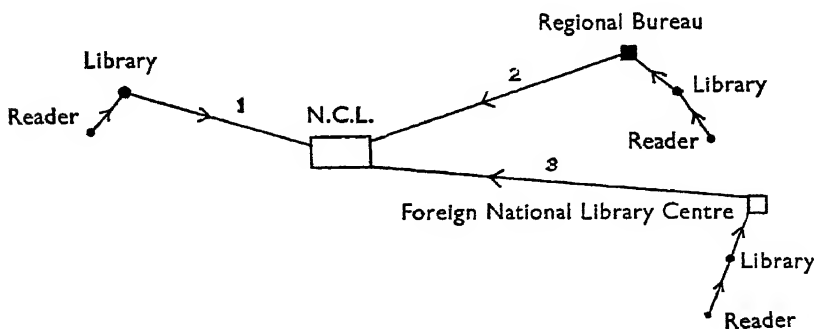
This concludes a brief sketch of the development of the National Central Library's "external" work, and of the growth of a national system of library co-operation: this is not yet completed, but much has been achieved in a space of little over 10 years.

During this time the National Library itself has, of course, made considerable progress towards its goal of becoming an adequate national lending library and centre for bibliographical information. On March 1st, 1930, the Library was newly constituted and its title changed from "The Central Library for Students," and in the same year the first annual grant of £3,000 was received from the Treasury. On April 21st, 1931, a Royal Charter was granted to the Library, constituting it an independent body under its own Board of Trustees; and on November 7th, 1933, its very fine new premises, presented by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, were opened by H.M. The King, accompanied by H.M. The Queen.

The Library's stock has grown from 1,392 volumes in 1916 to over 130,000 to-day, and the increase in its volume of work has developed enormously. It is difficult to indicate this, for to compare the issues and book additions of 1916-17 with those of 1933-34 only gives a partial idea of it, yet these figures are 2,005 and 1,357 to be compared with 64,054 and 18,903. In addition is the work entailed by the Library's connection with Outliers, the Universities and the Regional Bureaux and the great increase in the volume of its correspondence—it receives an average of some 300 applications every day. The Library still has, unfortunately, no stable income. The Treasury grant of £3,000 is an annual one; the subscriptions from libraries are

purely voluntary, and fluctuate; the grant from the Carnegie Trustees is only a temporary one, and the Library is in urgent need of further State support which should be forthcoming immediately. A brief note on the Library's income is given on p. 75.

It has been said that the Library now receives applications only from other libraries: individuals may apply directly when they live outside a library area, but as less than 3 per cent of the population are so situated the number of these direct enquiries is now very small. Readers apply to their local library, which may be municipal, county, university or special, saying: "If you have this book will you please supply it; if you do not have it, will you please send the request to the National Central Library." The following diagram illustrates the route of these applications:—



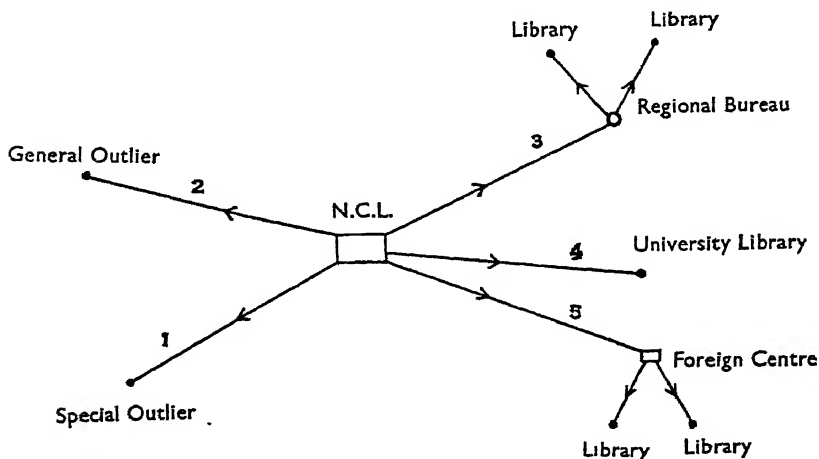
1. Applications from a library not yet in a regional area. These are for books which the library cannot itself supply but which are wanted by its readers.

2. Applications from a regional bureau. These are made by readers to their local libraries. Being unable to supply them these libraries forward them to their bureau, which, finding that the books are not in any library in the area, send the applications to the National Central Library.

3. In foreign countries where a centre exists corresponding to the National Central Library, libraries usually apply through that.

Some applications are received direct from libraries, but in any case the enquiring library is expected to ascertain that its request cannot be met in its own country.

The National Central Library naturally endeavours in the first instance to satisfy enquiries from its own stock. When it cannot do this it tries to obtain the books or information from other sources. It may be able to do so immediately from information in its union catalogues and other records. When it neither has the required book nor definite information as to its whereabouts, it institutes a search for it on the lines of the following diagram :—



1. Applications for books on special subjects are sent to outliers known to specialize in those subjects.

2. Lists of books not found, or not likely to be, in special outliers are sent simultaneously twice each week to 52 outliers which are general in scope.

3. Lists of books not found in the outliers are sent twice each week to the regional bureaux and through them these enquiries are virtually made to all the libraries associated with the bureaux.

4. Selected lists of applications, chiefly received from

universities, are sent twice each week to 36 university and college libraries.

5. At the request of enquirers, applications for foreign books which cannot be traced in Great Britain are sent to the national central library of the country of their origin. If necessary, this searches for the required books in the libraries of its country, as the National Central Library does in Great Britain.

Enquiries are made by telephone, multiplied lists and special letters. The library is compelled to make extensive use of the list method; about 20 distinct lists, some of two sheets, are issued every week, partly owing to the large number of enquiries and the smallness of its own staff, but chiefly to the present inadequacy of its union catalogues. If these could be developed, the use of lists, a method which although thorough is necessarily slow and which causes much trouble to many librarians, could be greatly reduced, and perhaps even given up. The Library makes an entry for every book located and inserts it into its Outlier Union Catalogue to which many of the Outliers also contribute entries. This now contains some 150,000 cards and is an extremely useful tool. In 1932 a test over 50 days showed that of 3,635 books for which search was made in this catalogue 733, or 1 in 5, were located through it [B. 207:—1932-3. p. 32].

In this way the Library has made great strides towards becoming a national lending library complementary to the national reference library, the British Museum. It now has a national status and an excellent building with room for a million books and its administrative work for as far ahead as can be seen. Its only, and urgent, need is for an assured income, which should be provided by the State.

The national system of co-operation started in a "classified" way, for the first Outliers to the National Central Library were Special libraries—Public and County libraries only began to join the Outlier system in 1927. In the same way the Universities started to lend books only to each other; but very rapidly that scheme was extended to include libraries of other kinds, so that by the time the centre was moved to the National Central Library in 1931 more than half the British and nearly a third of the foreign

institutions which had taken part in the scheme were not universities. Indeed the number of participating non-university institutions is probably greater than is indicated by the figures on p. 275 since the term "university" there includes colleges and similar higher educational institutions which are not strictly universities.

The Cornish system was confined to Public and County libraries; the Northern and West Midlands include libraries of all kinds; the South Eastern includes at present only Public and County libraries; the East Midlands and Yorkshire, these and University libraries; the North Western at present only Public and County libraries: it seems likely that although the Public and County libraries will necessarily form the basis of regional systems, yet libraries of all kinds will be included in them. In time most of the National Central Library's Outliers will become members of the regional systems, and since these will all lend to each other there will be free inter-lending in a national scheme which will include practically all Public and County and many special and University libraries.

It is already certain that the growth of this co-operative work has greatly stimulated the use of books. This is well instanced by the requests for books within regional bureau areas; for not only is a very great number of these now being supplied locally, but far more books are being asked for and supplied: and although the National Central Library naturally receives less enquiries from these areas now, those it does receive are mainly for books difficult to obtain. This increase in reading, following on the extension of lending services, is one of the indirect results of work for which the National Central Library is largely responsible: another, arising out of increased interest in books and libraries, is the formation of new libraries and development of existing ones: the work gives admirable publicity to the value of books and libraries.

The following table [B. 207:—19th Report, 1934-35] shows the number of books issued to libraries in regional areas during the year 1934-35, compared with the number they received in the year immediately before the establishment of the regional system:

	<i>Region</i> 1934-35	<i>N.C.L.</i> 1934-35	<i>Total</i> 1934-35	<i>N.C.L.</i> <i>only</i> ¹	<i>Increase</i>	<i>Decrease</i>
Cornwall ..	1,188	415	1,603	112	1,491	—
Northern ..	1,473	816	2,289	1,099	1,190	—
W. Midland ..	3,092	558	3,650	2,594	1,056	—
Wales ..	4,847	1,232	6,079	2,244 ²	3,835	—
S. Eastern ..	4,846	7,619	12,465	11,859	606	—
E. Midland ³ ..	411	481	892	990	—	98
Totals ..	15,857	11,121	26,978	18,898	8,080	—

The above is a brief outline of the main points in library co-operation in Great Britain. There are, of course, many other co-operative features in the British library world, in such union catalogues as "A short-title catalogue of books printed in England, Scotland, and Ireland and of English books printed abroad, 1475-1640. Compiled by A. W. Pollard and G. R. Redgrave . . . and others" [for the Bibliographical Society], pp. xiv, 609, London 1926, with over 26,000 titles for 148 libraries of which 18 are foreign; the "London Bibliography of the Social Sciences," a catalogue of 10 libraries produced by the London School of Economics in 1931-2; in the work of the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux; in that of the Library of the Science Museum, London; in the Scottish and Irish Central Libraries for students, and in other inter-lending schemes and union catalogues. For these the reader should consult B. 8, 190, 193, 194, and especially 211 when it appears. But it will be clear that inter-lending is now widely practised and is organized; and that the position as described by Walter Powell in 1926 (p. 267) has now radically changed.

International Co-operation. The following figures represent the international loans to and from the chief libraries in Great

¹ The issues to the libraries in these areas in the year before the establishment of the Regional System.

² Including 1,790 books lent by the National Library of Wales.

³ The figures for the E. Midland System are for the two months January-February, 1935, only.

Britain in the years 1928 to 1934. They include a small number of direct loans on which information was obtained by questionnaires issued from the National Central Library to the chief British libraries in 1931 and 1934; but most of the transactions were effected through the National Central Library [B. 207. 17th and 19th Reports] :—

In 1928 British libraries lent	67	books and borrowed	23
„ 1929 „ „ „	47	„ „ „	8
„ 1930 „ „ „	101	„ „ „	17
„ 1931 „ „ „	100	„ „ „	35
„ 1932 „ „ „	225	„ „ „	77
„ 1933 „ „ „	176	„ „ „	107
„ 1934 „ „ „	304	„ „ „	115
	<hr/>		<hr/>
Total	1,020		382
	<hr/>		<hr/>

The transactions of British libraries with foreign libraries through the National Central Library are steadily increasing. In 1929-30 the National Central Library lent seven books to four foreign libraries: in 1930-31 it lent 50 books to six foreign libraries. In 1931-32 British libraries, through the National Central Library, lent 58 books to libraries in Belgium, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, Germany, Holland, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States of America; and borrowed 29 books from Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany and the United States of America. Details of subsequent transactions through the National Central Library are shown on page 288.

Most British University libraries which lend at all are willing to lend abroad, and so are the Urban and County as well as the Special libraries. They are also willing that these loans, except in the case of valuable books, should be made by ordinary postal service directly between libraries; they do not normally wish to make use of the diplomatic service, or to require any other formalities.

	<i>Books lent to :</i>			<i>Books borrowed from :</i>		
	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	1932-33	1933-34	1934-35
Africa (East) ..	—	—	3	—	—	—
Africa (West) ..	—	4	1	—	—	—
Algeria ..	1	—	—	—	—	—
Austria ..	6	1	—	—	1	1
Belgium ..	21	28	53	1	1	3
Bulgaria ..	—	—	1	—	—	—
Czecho-Slovakia	1	—	1	—	—	3
Denmark ..	25	18	50	1	1	—
Finland ..	—	—	—	—	1	2
France ..	3	6	17	1	6	9
Germany ..	37	21	31	27	62	37
Holland ..	39	24	44	10	2	3
India ..	—	—	3	1	—	—
Italy ..	1	2	6	4	5	4
Japan ..	—	—	—	—	1	—
Norway ..	1	1	—	—	1	1
Palestine ..	—	1	—	—	—	2
Poland ..	3	8	12	—	—	3
Russia ..	—	2	—	—	1	1
Sweden ..	1	2	3	—	1	1
Switzerland ..	12	4	12	1	4	6
United States of America ..	—	3	2	6	3	6
	151	125	239	52	90	82

CHAPTER X

ITALY and FRANCE, with notes on SPAIN, BULGARIA and LATVIA

ITALY

[B. pp. 348-49]

Italy, as is well known, possesses the oldest and most beautiful libraries in the world. No less than 36 of these, including all the more important, except of course, the library of the Vatican, are state libraries - biblioteche governative: 7 of these are called "National," of which 2 again have the title of "National Central" libraries. These 2 are the "Vittorio Emanuele II" at Rome and the National Central Library at Florence. They share between them the position of the true national library, but for the chief matters discussed here, inter-library lending, and especially international co-operation, the centre is the "Vittorio Emanuele II" at Rome, which contains the National Centre for Bibliographical Information.

Italy had, of course, up to the beginning of the Fascist regime, been a highly decentralized country, and this fact has probably contributed to the preservation and foundation of many libraries in areas where local autonomy was preserved. But as early as 1885 standard Government regulations for the administration of the state libraries were issued. These regulations were superseded by those of 1907 (R.D. October 24th) which are still in force: and since then the 36 state libraries have been under the control of the Ministry of Education (which has now an advisory committee of librarians—*Direzione Generale per le Accademie e Biblioteche*). In 1926 (R.D. August 13th) the Ministry of Education also formed a "Commissione Centrale per le Biblioteche" which was reconstituted in 1932 (R.D. September 22nd).

Regulations for loans between the state libraries had been made as far back as November 25th, 1869, and subsequently

revised on several occasions of which the chief are October 28th, 1885; August 3rd, 1908; October 2nd, 1922, and June 14th, 1923. [B. 231 :—p. 856]. So that there is a long established practice of loan between these libraries, they are of exactly the same type, their staffs are similarly educated and trained, and they are all directly dependent on the Government and controlled by the same regulations. Furthermore, postage between them is free and they are in continual communication with each other.

The state libraries, therefore, form the backbone of the national library system, including the system of co-operation. But this latter extends to other libraries as well, special libraries and the public popular libraries: and the state libraries are connected with these through the bibliographical superintendents (*Soprintendenze bibliografiche*). There is one of these to each of 13 districts into which the country is divided. They are appointed by the State and each is usually the librarian of the chief state library of his district. They work directly and through the staffs of their libraries and through honorary bibliographical inspectors who are appointed everywhere where there are collections of even mediocre importance. Their duty is to see that libraries are efficiently managed and that valuable books are carefully looked after and not alienated. They have not the function of organizing any kind of system for their districts and have nothing directly to do with schemes of co-operation. But they provide an important link, so that the national library system can be said to be one, embracing libraries of all kinds; and contact between the smallest of these and the superintendent's office on which they depend is rapid and easy.

Popular libraries are of comparatively recent growth. The first seems to have been founded at Prato in 1861; some 10 years later there were 35, and in 1893 there were 542. In 1906 this number had dropped to 415 but since the War the increase has been phenomenal. There were 1,930 in 1926 and 3,198 in 1929: it is estimated [B. 224 :—p. xvii] that there are now about 6,000. Many of these have been formed largely by private and local enterprise and are so maintained; only a few have been formed by the State, but many receive a State grant. They are of various types and there are other kinds, as school and other

similar libraries (over 15,000 in 1926-7). All these libraries lend and many are no more than lending libraries. They are divided into the following groups: (1) *Biblioteche Comunali* (Commune libraries), (2) *Biblioteche Provinciali* (County libraries), (3) *Biblioteche di Facoltà e Biblioteche scolastiche* (University Seminar and minor scholastic libraries), (4) *Biblioteche popolari* (Popular public libraries). Groups (1) and (2) may borrow from the state libraries, but groups (3) and (4) may not. In addition there are special libraries of various kinds, which, so long as they are available for public use, may also obtain permission to borrow from the state libraries.

Following on the recommendations of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation at Paris in 1928 [B. 223 :—Vol. 5. 1932. pp. 296-98] a branch of the Institute was founded in Italy—the National Commission for Intellectual Co-operation—and at the first meeting of the “sub-committee for moral sciences and bibliography,” of this, on April 9th, 1929, it was decided that a bibliographical centre should be established in Italy. It was felt that while the centre must be in a large library it must also be conceived and carried out as an entity in itself, charged with a service of its own and independent of all the other services which the library in which it was situated might do.

There was no question but that the centre must be established in the National Central Library V.E. II at Rome; and that it must be under the control of the director of that library although its finances must be separately managed.

A small committee to organize and manage the centre was formed of a representative of the National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, the head of the Direzione delle Accademie e Biblioteche and the Director of the National Central Library V.E.II at Rome.

On these recommendations was drawn up the decree of November 9th, 1931 (revised and completed by R.D. August 3rd, 1934), by which the National Bibliographical Centre was formed and of which the chief points are as follows [B. 223 :—5. 1932. p. 298]:

The National Centre for Bibliographical Information is established at the National Central Library V.E.II at Rome. Its

chief object is to help Italian and foreign students in their literary researches, and in particular to help them to locate books. The Centre will keep in close contact with similar centres abroad and will act as the intermediary for the exchange of bibliographical information.

The Centre is supervised by the above-mentioned committee and its Director is the Director of the National Central Library V.E.II. He is competent to appoint a professional staff and may also call on voluntary assistance. All state libraries and all other libraries open to the public must answer requests sent to them from the Centre which are of a bibliographical nature, and may not ask any payment for supplying these answers. The same applies to the Bibliographical Superintendents and the honorary bibliographical inspectors.

The Centre is to draw up and keep up-to-date a list of institutes, societies and individuals having sources of information or knowledge likely to be of use to the Centre. The title "Correspondent of the National Centre of Bibliographical Information" is to be conferred on these and they are to answer questions submitted to them by the Centre, on the same terms as libraries, mentioned above.

The Ministry of Education assigns annually, out of the funds for State libraries, a grant to the Centre, quite distinct from that which it assigns to the National Central Library V.E.II. The Director of the Centre may receive money for the Centre from other sources but must account to the Ministry for the expenditure of all money from whatever source it is received.

The Centre works from printed catalogues and other reference books and also makes use of circular enquiries. It has the use of the collections in the National Central Library V.E.II. It does not compile bibliographies for applicants but will obtain photographic copies at cost price. Information, whether given personally or by telephone or by correspondence, is free.

As far as the loan of books is concerned the Centre does not, so far, concern itself with loans between Italian libraries, but only with international loans when its agency is required for the purpose. This is because the practice of direct borrowing between Italian libraries has been long established and because

of two important guides which are available for locating books in Italy. The first is the law of legal deposit. The National library at Florence has received all books published in Tuscany since 1848 and all published in Italy since 1870. Since 1910 a second copy is also sent to the Ministry of Justice in Rome which passes on to the National Central Library V.E.II. all those books it does not require; and a third copy is deposited in the State library nearest to its place of publication. Since 1886 the National Central Library at Florence has published monthly the *Bollettino delle pubblicazioni italiane ricevute per diritto di stampa*, which is a current national bibliography; and from the same date the National Central Library at Rome has issued quarterly the *Bollettino delle opere moderne straniere acquistate dalle biblioteche governative del Regno d'Italia*, which is a union catalogue of foreign books added to the state libraries. These are selective but include everything "of value" and not only books, but periodicals and, in the Florence bulletin, since 1929, music. There is an author, and since about 1930, a subject index to each part, and annual cumulated author and subject indexes are also issued. The Rome bulletin also issues a decennial author index. The entries are done scientifically so that they can be, and are, cut out and pasted on cards for library catalogues.

The circumstances of legal deposit and the union catalogue of foreign books thus make it easy for any library to locate any Italian book published since 1886 and any foreign book added to an Italian State library since that date. For books published before 1886 there is no central guide except printed catalogues. There is a printed catalogue of only one state library, that of Casanatense, and this only for the letters A-Leo. There are a fair number of partial catalogues, of special collections, incunabula, MSS., etc., but there is no doubt but that a union catalogue, especially of these older books, would be of very great value.

The Centre is itself engaged on bibliographical work. It is making a general subject index by the Decimal classification of the Brussels Institute of Documentation, to modern material. This already includes the modern books at the V.E.II and matter selected from current periodicals is being steadily added. It is also compiling a bio-bibliographical catalogue of Italian writers

from 500 A.D. to 1848. This is being drawn up from printed catalogues of the chief libraries, and a list of titles under the letter A is being reproduced by a duplicating process and issued to Italian libraries for verification and completion. This work is, however, being temporarily held up. Finally, the Centre is engaged on a union catalogue of incunabula in all Italian libraries, a task at which attempts have been made since 1910.

So that in its main task of helping to diffuse knowledge the Centre has a double function:—1. To deal with enquiries; to act as an information bureau and a clearing house. 2. To initiate and achieve original work of bibliographical importance either itself or by giving assistance to others. The work of the Centre is steadily increasing. During the year ending June 30th, 1932, it gave 231 items of bibliographical information by correspondence, and a very much larger number to personal callers.

The general loan conditions affecting Italian libraries are liberal and may be summed up as follows [B. 31 and 231 :—pp. 927-9].

Lending is divided into 3 kinds :—1. Local, to individuals or other libraries in the immediate locality. 2. National, to libraries or other institutions elsewhere in Italy or its colonies. 3. International, to libraries abroad.

Local and National: Books and other material of rarity or value may be lent only to other libraries. Libraries belonging to the State and situated in the same town may lend to each other but no library may lend a borrowed book to a third library.

An individual borrower requiring a book not available locally must send a request to his local library which will transmit it, giving the borrower's name, on a standard form, to a library possessing the book (if this is known) or to one likely to have it.

The loan is made as to the library transmitting the request, but, if not forbidden by the lending library, this may issue the book for home-reading. Libraries belonging to institutions and other libraries not open to the public, may borrow from State public libraries provided that they engage to lend to these.

The period of loan must not exceed 2 months, and where postage has to be paid (it is free between state libraries) books must be registered, or insured, and in all cases carefully packed.

The cost of postage (when incurred) must be borne by the individual borrowers.

Manuscripts, incunabula and other old documents may be lent by State libraries to other State or approved libraries in answer to a special request from the Director of the borrowing library. Such items must be insured at the expense of the borrower.

During the years 1932-34 there were 7,139 loans between Italian libraries, and 937 items of information were supplied by the Information Centre at Rome.

International. International loan is allowed with libraries in those countries which can and do give a reciprocal service. It is subject to the same conditions as National loans within Italy.

During the period 1926-1932 Italian libraries lent 340 books and MSS. to foreign libraries, from which they borrowed 90.

In the years 1932-34 Italian libraries lent 92 books to and borrowed 36 from foreign libraries.

These transactions were effected through the Information Centre at Rome. Other direct transactions were also made.

Union Catalogues. There has been considerable activity in the making of union catalogues in Italy. In addition to those already mentioned, there are no less than 20 printed union catalogues of periodicals [B. 53] including what was probably the first of this kind, the *Elenco dei giornali e delle opere periodiche esistenti presso pubblici stabilimenti a Milano*. Milano, 1859, and among the more recent, the *Periodici stranieri che si trovano nelle biblioteche degli istituti scientifici italiani*. Roma, 1930, edited by G. Magrini for the "Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche."

FRANCE

[B. p. 349]

The modern history of French libraries, at any rate from the middle of the 19th century down to a few years ago, has not been happy: in 1929 the then director of the Bibliothèque Nationale could say [B. 243: p. 27]: "Nos bibliothèques nationales, universitaires et municipales classées restent pauvres; la majorité des citoyens n'y ont pas accès et, dans presque toutes nos villes dans tous nos villages, la lecture publique ne fait l'objet d'aucun

soin," and this is the general view; most French writers on library activities comment severely on the shortcomings of their national library system.

The view is also, of course, widely held outside France, and the following extract from an article "Public Libraries for France?" (*The Observer*, London, January 12th, 1930) is perhaps typical of English and American press comment on libraries and reading in France:—

"It is an astonishing thing that in a country, where the average of intelligence is so exceptional and the standard of education so high, hardly anything exists to encourage the man who is not possessed of means to cultivate his mind. When Jules Ferry had succeeded in persuading the Chamber to adopt the principle of compulsory free secular education, to be supplied by the State, he added, 'And now, if you do not give France some libraries, you will have achieved nothing at all.' That was more than fifty years ago, and it is only now that France is thinking seriously of filling up the gap.

"The truth is that any Frenchman who wants to cultivate his mind can only do so with great difficulty if he lives in any town but Paris, for he will have to buy nearly all the books that he wants to read. If he lives in the country, he will have to buy every one . . . the literary and artistic culture of France, although its effects are spread very widely by an admirable educational system and by the French habit of discussing everything, is very little dependent upon the general reading of books. France, which has so many writers and so many admirable writers, has very few readers of anything but newspapers."

The accuracy of this view that the French do not read books is, of course, open to question. It may be that they read books extensively and buy them and form private libraries at least as much as any other people: and this, rather than the contrary, may be the very reason for lack of interest in Public Libraries: the Frenchman is, perhaps, so interested in books that he prefers to possess rather than to borrow them.

French libraries may be roughly divided into 5 groups:

(1) the state "learned" libraries of Paris (as the Bibliothèque Nationale and the Mazarine, the Arsenal and the Ste. Geneviève—the last now acting as the central library for the University of Paris), (2) the University libraries, (3) the libraries of other learned institutions and societies, (4) the "classed" Public Libraries, (5) the non-classed Public Libraries. Groups (1), (2) are public property, the libraries and their contents belong to the state, (4), (5) are town property, a part of the books only is state property.

France is such a highly centralized country that the Bibliothèque Nationale is an example of the national library *par excellence*. Not only is there in France no other library which can compare with it in size and importance, but since it received the right of legal deposit as early as 1527 (then, of course, as the Royal Library), and has held it, with some lapses, ever since, its collection of national literature is probably more nearly complete than that of any other national library.

By a decree of August 29th, 1923, a committee was set up to guide the policy and internal organization of the Nationale, Mazarine and Arsenal, and in 1924 the other state libraries in Paris came into this scheme. In 1930 the Mazarine was abolished, its premises given to the Institut de France and its books to the Nationale, although the books still remain in the same premises. Thus there is now close contact between these libraries, and active co-operation in book selection and inter-lending.

The University libraries have had a chequered history. Most of them are, of course, very old, but with the exception of the University of Paris, they were suppressed at the Revolution and their books scattered into various *dépôts littéraires* and placed at the disposal of the municipalities. The University libraries were not re-organized until 1875, and were not established as state institutions until July 10th, 1896. Even so, their books are state property, belonging to the public by the same title as those in the National libraries; and although they are autonomous in administration, the organization of the provincial universities is more or less uniform, being governed by regulations issued by the Ministry of Education in 1879. They now number 17 including those of Strasbourg and Algiers.

In 1925 C. Oursel pointed out [B. 241 :—p. 10 footnote 1] that the national and other state libraries in Paris, the university libraries of Paris and the provinces, the classed municipal libraries, each comprised a group strictly isolated from and independent of the others, each with a staff educated, trained and qualified differently from the others. M. Oursel admitted that there were many reasons to explain how this had come to be but none to explain why it should remain to be, as indeed M. Roland Marcel had already said in a report of October 19th, 1924, on the working of the Bibliothèque Nationale. M. Oursel's plea for the nationalization of the classed municipal libraries, was one of many. In 1929 H. Lemaître said [B. 238 :—pp. 18–20] “some excellent beginnings have been made in various parts of France, but it is impossible to say that the position of the municipal libraries has improved since the War. The contrary is the case. The credits allotted to them in the past were already quite insufficient, and the decrease in the value of money has rendered them still more so. Many libraries find themselves unable to subscribe to current periodicals, still less to buy new books . . . In many cases the municipality is ignorant both of the value of the collections in their care and of the benefits which the public may derive from a well organized library . . . the treasures of the library are poorly sheltered in badly maintained buildings; the reading rooms are out of date and uncomfortable . . . the lack of enthusiasm on the part of the public leads to the conclusion that the institution is of no value, and any increased assistance is denied it.” There are very few towns in France which possess a Public Library which is at all adequate; Marseilles, the second city of France, with a population of over 650,000 spends no more than about £525 a year *in all*, salaries included, on her public libraries. Manchester with a population of 766,000 spent £98,325 in the year 1931–2 and Sheffield, population 512,000, spent £41,450. By a decree of 1930 this state of things was improved. The classed municipal libraries were nationalized, the unclassified are to be subjected to regular supervision by the Ministry of Education, and all other libraries may be inspected by the Ministry, which is to classify all Public Libraries into one or other of these groups. Selection of chief libraries in each city.

classed libraries are to be provided by the State and by their municipalities, the contribution from the latter being based on the size of population: the budgets of the classed libraries were increased in no other way.

In addition to these Public Libraries, many towns possess small popular libraries often founded and financed by individuals or private associations. These are open to the public and, since 1874, have received grants of books from the Ministry of Education. In small communes with no other library resources there are "Bibliothèques Scolaires" established, since 1862, by the Ministry of Education, in every communal school. Their books are state property and may be used by certain members of the general public as well as by the members of the school.

Co-operation. As we should expect from the nature of the French library system and habits of reading, not much has been done in the way of library co-operation: but a start has been made. It has been indicated that a new vitality seems to have come into French library activities in the last decade: M. Coyecque opens his introduction [B. 234] with the paragraph, "Après une longue période d'indifférence, d'abandon et d'immobilité dans des formules devenues insuffisantes et désuètes, les bibliothèques françaises sont, depuis quelques années, entrées dans une ère de renaissance, de progrès, de réadaptation aux conditions et aux exigences de la vie et du travail modernes," and two years earlier M. Vidier, speaking of this same revival [B. 232 :—1927. pp. xxi–xxiv] points out that the key-note of it is "co-ordination" and developments towards co-operation.

There is a long tradition of lending from the French state libraries¹ and various regulations have been made concerning it as well as plans for making union catalogues. Léopold Delisle, who became head of the Bibliothèque Nationale in 1874 and was the originator of the printed catalogue of that library now in course of publication, also "dreamed of a further stage, a . . . union catalogue of the greater Parisian libraries which should facilitate lending where there was more than one copy of a book in Paris, but not otherwise" [B. 23 :—p. 81].

¹ See, for example, an account of loans from the Bibliothèque Impériale in 1813, by P. M. Bondonis. (R. de B. 39. 1932,—132–9.)

On November 26th, 1901, a section of special long term loans was created in the Ste. Geneviève and 8 provincial universities. The centre was in the Ste. Geneviève but was transferred on December 10th, 1927, to the Musée Pédagogique in Paris. On December 24th, 1901, regulations were made by the Ministry of Education for "Direct loan between libraries of manuscripts and duplicate copies of printed books, organized for the national and public libraries, that of the Institute of France, the University libraries and Municipal libraries taking part in the scheme." By this, the Bibliothèque Nationale and the Ste. Geneviève, the Mazarine and the Arsenal, the library of the Institute and the University libraries were authorized to lend each other: (1) Manuscripts which the rules of each institution allowed outside its buildings; (2) printed books of which the lending library had two copies, excluding works of exceptional value, popular and current literature. The period of loan is fixed by the lending library, and cost of transport, if any, is borne by the borrowing library. These provisions may be extended to municipal libraries by the decision of the Minister of Education, on request from Mayors, and on the recommendation of the Commission on National and Municipal Libraries. [B. 234:—Vol. 1. pp. 244-7].

On August 30th, 1927, regulations were similarly made for "The regulation of loan by French libraries to foreign libraries." By this it is directed that all requests from foreign libraries must be sent to the Service Central des Prêts, Bibliothèque Nationale, 58, rue de Richelieu, Paris. This will find out if the book required may be lent. If it may not be lent the Central Loan Service will inform the enquiring library, and the matter will then be closed. If it is available the loan comes into one of two classes: 1. Ordinary printed books. 2. Manuscripts, incunabula and other valuable books. If the book in question belongs to the first class it is sent directly by the library which possesses it, on information from the Central Loan Service, to the foreign library. It is also returned directly from library to library. If it belongs to the second class it must not be sent directly from library to library, but through the Diplomatic Service. Communication concerning conditions of the loan and extension of

the period of loan must be made by the borrowing library to the Central Loan Service. The costs of making the loan must be borne by the borrowing library. It is important to note that the Bibliothèque Nationale cannot, as yet, endeavour to locate books in other libraries, so that the enquiring library must *first* locate a copy, by its own endeavours, in a French library, before applying to that library through the Bibliothèque Nationale for the loan. [B. 234 :—Vol. 1. pp. 247–8].

The fullest account of the Central Loan Service is that given by Mme. S. Dupuy-Briet [B. 236], but even at that time (1929) the Centre was still only a project which had not been realized, and so, for the most part, Mme. Dupuy's descriptions are of proposals rather than accomplishments. Since then, progress has been slow on account of financial difficulties, and although the Central Service does now exist, it is by no means fully developed. However, there could never be any doubt but that the centre must be in the Bibliothèque Nationale, and Mme. Dupuy claims that to give information on the contents of French libraries is a natural extension of its work.

In 1927 the Bibliothèque Nationale began the compilation of an index to special collections in French libraries [B. 255 :—Année 3, 1928. 143–9] and the information obtained forms the nucleus of the "Fichier d'information" at the Centre d'Orientation. Much of the information is being published as B. 239, which is a co-operative work done by the librarians of the various libraries concerned and edited at the Bibliothèque Nationale for the Ministry of Education. The Centre opened its work as an information bureau at the end of April, 1934 : it can and does give information as to the whereabouts of a required book, but its primary task is rather to put the enquirer in touch with an institution or printed source of information from which he may find out what he wants, for himself. But as one of the official services of the Bibliothèque Nationale, it replies, as far as it can, to all questions of a bibliographical nature. It does not draw up bibliographies but will arrange for this work to be done, on payment of a fee, by the "Office de documentation," a service of the library which enlists specialists from outside to do this work. It is installed in the "Salle des Catalogues du

Département des Imprimés," where it is making a collection of printed catalogues of French libraries and of other bibliographical material.

In order to co-ordinate the efforts of the chief French libraries a "Commission de Co-ordination des Bibliothèques de France" was created by the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1927 [B. 255 :—Année 3. 1928. 36–7] : this has considered many questions affecting co-operation, and was responsible for the transformation in 1927, of the *Bulletin des acquisitions étrangères de la Bibliothèque Nationale*, to a union catalogue entitled *Bulletin des acquisitions étrangères de la Bibliothèque Nationale et des principales bibliothèques de Paris*, to which 18 libraries contribute. This is published monthly by the staff of the Bibliothèque Nationale (see L.A.R. N.S. 6. 1928. p. 295).

Of other union catalogues may be cited the *Inventaire des Périodiques scientifiques des Bibliothèques de Paris* by A. Lacroix and L. Bultingaire. Published under the auspices of the Académie des Sciences of the Institut de France, 5 vols. 1924–9, and showing the holdings of 132 libraries; and the *Catalogue des périodiques slaves . . . des bibliothèques de Paris*, by B. Unbegaun, 1929 (About 4,500 periodicals in 25 libraries), which are now being complemented by H. Stein in a union catalogue of the humanistic periodicals of Paris entitled *Répertoire des publications périodiques que possèdent les bibliothèques parisiennes pour les disciplines littéraires*. This, as was also the *Inventaire des périodiques scientifiques*, is largely due to the "Commission de co-ordination des bibliothèques de Paris," formed by the Ministry of Education, although the initiative is ultimately due to the Fédération des Sociétés Scientifiques.

There are also the great *Catalogue général des manuscrits des bibliothèques publiques des départements*. Publié sous les auspices du Ministre de l'Instruction Publique, 1–7, 1849–1885. New series—*Catalogue général des manuscrits des bibliothèques publiques de France*, 1, etc. 1886, etc. By 1933, 77 volumes had been published and the series is still in progress. The *Catalogue général des incunables des bibliothèques publiques de France*, by Marie Pellechet and M. L. Polain. 1–3, 1897–1909 (—Gregorius) was also done under the auspices of the Ministry of Education

which sent a circular to French libraries on February 15th, 1886, asking for a return of incunabula. Most librarians replied and no less than 176 libraries reported possession of incunabula. No more of this work was published although Mlle. Pellechet has issued catalogues of other collections of incunabula. The inception of these catalogues of manuscripts and of incunabula was due largely to the efforts of Léopold Delisle of the Bibliothèque Nationale. Other union catalogues of periodicals in Paris, and also in Strasbourg, have been published.

In 1882-83 the Bibliothèque Nationale published a *Catalogue des dissertations et écrits académiques provenant des échanges avec les Universités étrangères* and this inspired the Ministry of Education to issue a joint *Catalogue des thèses et écrits académiques* of all French universities. The first volume appeared in 1885, since when volumes have been issued annually.

Perhaps the most interesting point about the French Central Enquiry Office is that unlike such Information Bureaux as that at Berlin or that at London this does not make its primary task the actual locating of books [B. 236 :—pp. 240-1]. Those and most other bureaux definitely make that their first task. The London Office also actually arranges the loan of many of the books found. That is not done at Berlin, nor at Paris. It seems that most of the enquiries to the French Office come from individuals, and these will only be told of sources of information which might help them to locate books they need: "Dans la majorité des cas, le Fichier d'information se bornera . . . à renseigner sur les sources d'information . . . Au travailleur de trouver . . . le document dont il a besoin" [B. 236 :—p. 241]. As to borrowing it when he has located it, he must do the best he can either directly or through his local library. So far the service has been closely connected with the Union Française des Organismes de Documentation, founded by the Ministry of Education in 1932. [B. 24 :—4. p. 125 and 5. pp. 182-4 and B. 190 : 1934. 102-3 and B. 236 :—244-7 and B. 23 :—88].

The following notes and figures on the national and international loans of French libraries are taken from B. 24 :—4. 161-64. French libraries are relatively more ready to lend

manuscripts and valuable printed books than ordinary books, to foreign libraries. Most libraries will only lend duplicates of ordinary printed books, which explains why only 47.5 per cent of requests for these were satisfied in 1931. But international loan transactions in 1931 represented an increase of 21.2 per cent on those of 1930.

The following tables indicate loans effected through the loan service at the Bibliothèque Nationale in 1931. They do not include loans made directly between libraries, which were extensive, especially between the Universities. The figures also concern enquiries, not items, and many enquiries were for more than one book.

During the year the service despatched 1,175 packages to libraries in various parts of France. Over 25 per cent of these packages were from the American Library in Paris. The figures in parentheses are for 1930.

1. Documents belonging to the Bibliothèque Nationale :—

<i>Requested by</i>	<i>Nature</i>	<i>Lent</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Total</i>
Other French libs.	Manuscripts	34(50)	14(12)	48(62)
" " "	Printed books	70(98)	59(75)	129(173)
Foreign libraries..	Manuscripts	39(22)	4(5)	43(27)
" " "	Printed books	37(27)	70(50)	107(77)

2. Documents belonging to other French libraries :—

<i>Requested by</i>	<i>Nature</i>	<i>Lent</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Total</i>
The Bib. Nationale	Manuscripts	165(191)	9(32)	174(223)
" " "	Printed books	19(50)	4(15)	23(65)
Other French libs.	Manuscripts	76(50)	5(10)	81(60)
" " "	Printed books	266(286)	41(59)	307(345)
Foreign libraries ..	Manuscripts	57(37)	1(4)	58(41)
" " "	Printed books	40(34)	15(37)	55(71)

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3. Documents belonging to foreign libraries :—

<i>Requested by</i>	<i>Nature</i>	<i>Lent</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Total</i>
The Bib. Nationale	Manuscripts	29(9)	3(3)	32(12)
" " " "	Printed books	5(8)	2(1)	7(9)
Other French libs.	Manuscripts	12(1)	—(—)	12(1)
" " "	Printed books	12(11)	1(6)	13(17)
	Total ..	858(871)	231(309)	1,089(1,183)

International Loan. Totals.

Loans by French to Foreign libraries :—

		<i>Loans granted</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Proportion satisfied</i>
1930	Manuscripts ..	59	9	68	86·7 %
	Printed books	61	87	148	41·3 %
1931	Manuscripts ..	96	5	101	96 %
	Printed books	77	85	162	47·5 %

		<i>Loans granted</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Proportion satisfied</i>
1930	Manuscripts ..	10	Not known		
	Printed books	17	" "		
1931	Manuscripts ..	41	" "		
	Printed books	17	" "		

International Loan. Analysis.

Loans by French to Foreign libraries in :—

		<i>Manuscripts</i>		<i>Printed books</i>	
		<i>Loans granted</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Loans granted</i>	<i>Refused</i>
Germany	..	35	1	15	21
Belgium	..	30	—	26	34
Holland	..	12	1	5	1
Italy	..	2	1	5	9
Poland	..	2	—	4	3
Switzerland	..	1	—	6	1

The remaining few loans were made to libraries in Austria, Denmark, Finland, Great Britain, Hungary and the U.S.S.R. :—

Loans by Foreign to French Libraries from :—

	<i>Manuscripts</i>		<i>Printed books</i>	
	<i>Loans granted</i>	<i>Refused</i>	<i>Loans granted</i>	<i>Refused</i>
Germany ..	15		5	
Italy ..	6		1	
Switzerland ..	5		2	
Belgium ..	4		4	
Holland ..	1		—	
Great Britain ..	1		—	
Poland ..	—		1	
Sweden ..	—		2	
Denmark ..	—		1	
Norway ..	—		1	

The American Library in Paris, 10, rue de l'Élysée. This was founded in 1918 by the American Library Association, for American troops, and was established as a permanent institution in 1920. Its purpose is to act as a European centre for information about the United States and "to promote mutual comprehension and good-will." It has an extension service whereby "1. Bibliographies . . . upon any American subject will be furnished to anyone at any time. 2. Books . . . will be loaned without charge to anyone . . . Any book upon any American subject will be secured upon request, provided it is still in print or can be borrowed from any American library." Its procedure is as follows : "Requests for bibliographies, book-lists, or any information relative to the Extension Service should be addressed directly to the Library. For the loan of books, persons living in France should file their requests with the librarian of their University or Municipal library, instructing him to forward the requests to the Service des Prêts d'Imprimés, Bibliothèque Nationale, 58, rue de Richelieu, Paris, with the statement that the loan of these books is desired from the American Library in Paris. All requests should give both the author and title of the books desired.

"These requests will be sent on to the American Library in Paris and the books will be mailed post-free, through the Service des Prêts d'Imprimés to the library requesting them. They may be retained for two months, and returned in the same way, also post-free, so that no expense of any sort is attached to this service.

"It is for the local librarian to decide whether or not these books may be taken by the borrower from the library to his home, since the librarian is responsible for the return of the books to the American Library in Paris. This library always encourages such permission to be given, but it can naturally only be given to persons known to the local librarian to be responsible. In cases where the librarian is in doubt, it is suggested that a deposit may be made covering the value of the books, the deposit to be refunded when the books are returned.

"Persons living outside of France should also file their requests with their local librarian, asking that they should be sent direct to the American Library in Paris. In most cases, the books can be sent forward without charge through the diplomatic channels. Where this is not possible, the postal charges must be paid by the borrower. . .

"It is ready at all times to give any desired information about American books and periodical publications, or about American libraries and library methods.

"It is a depository of the American Library Association, and possesses the latest publications upon library development and technique, all of which are at the service of European librarians.

"It welcomes the visits of such librarians, and it is happy to give any member of the staff of any European library a demonstration of American library methods. All its departments are open at all times to library students," *etc.*

It publishes lists of additions and bibliographies of special subjects and has issued at least one union catalogue, "American Law. A finding list of books on this subject in [40] public and private collections in Paris." 1929. pp. 139.

The quotations in this section are from "The American Library in Paris . . . Extension Service." A pamphlet dated July 25th, 1928. [See also B. 231a.]

OTHER COUNTRIES

It is believed that no other European countries have as yet attempted to organize national systems of co-operation between their libraries; but in B. 31 are short accounts of national centres and inter-lending in Spain, Bulgaria and Latvia, on which the following notes are based :—

Spain. [B. p. 349].

The Biblioteca Nacional, Paseo de Recoletos 20, Madrid, supplies information free, on its own stock, but does not undertake bibliographical work. For the most part, public libraries lend copies of duplicates but conditions of loan are made by the Director or Committees of each library, and consequently vary.

Books, usually only duplicates, are lent abroad on condition that they are used only in the borrowing library: they are lent only to those countries which are willing to lend to Spain, and are usually sent through the diplomatic service. In all cases the costs of loans are borne by the borrowers. The National Library is also reproducing its catalogue entries by a multigraph machine on cards of international size; these may be used by other libraries. [B. 23 :—pp. 232–3].

At Barcelona there “is a union catalog of all the popular lending libraries of the neighbourhood, very like the New York Public Library union catalog of its branches.” [B. 41 :—p. 138].

Just as the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris collaborates with the book trade in the production of the current national bibliography “la Bibliographie de la France,” so the National Library at Madrid collaborates with the “Camaras Oficiales del Libro” of Madrid and Barcelona in producing a general catalogue of modern Spanish books (books published in Spain and South America 1901–1930) entitled *Catálogo general de la librería Española e Hispanoamericana*. So far two volumes of the author catalogue (1932–33, A–G) have appeared. The author catalogue will be followed by a subject index. This is done at the National library by the “Junta de Intercambio y adquisición de libros para bibliotecas públicas,” an office established by the Ministry of Education, for regulating the exchange and acquisition of books among the state libraries, and which is also a bureau of bibliographical information for these libraries.

Bulgaria. [B. p. 350].

An information centre is in course of preparation at the National Library, Sofia; but this library already acts as such a centre. Books and correspondence on inter-library loan are sent post free within the country.

The National Library lends books under certain conditions, usually the deposit of a sum of money, to individuals in Bulgaria. Outside Bulgaria it lends to other libraries only, and to these usually through the diplomatic service.

Latvia. [B. p. 350].

The State Library, Jana Cakstes laukums 2, Riga, acts as the information centre, but loans are made directly between libraries. So also for books lent to foreign libraries, the transactions are made directly between the libraries concerned; the diplomatic service is not used.

Libraries lend any printed book, except those which are rare or valuable, but normally only to other libraries, not directly to individuals other than their own readers. The costs of loan are borne by the borrowing library.

In 1922 the Government proposed to make a union catalogue "of all the books in the State, Municipal, and other libraries." [B. 182 :—p. 6].

CHAPTER XI

International Societies concerned with co-operation between libraries, the International Institute of Documentation, the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, the International Federation of Library Associations, and a note on international co-operation.

There is, of course, no international organization which can control, and none which as yet can even act as a fully effective clearing house between the various national centres. The earliest international body which attempted any kind of organization of the world of bibliography was the International Institute of Bibliography which became the International Institute of Documentation in 1931. This has never been strictly a society of librarians nor has it been primarily concerned with library co-operation, but as it was the first to compile a union catalogue on a grand scale and as this and its work in effecting inter-library loans did much to promote co-operation, it is noticed here. The International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation was founded in 1926; it is a branch of the League of Nations and has done a great service in stimulating the formation of national centres for library co-operation; but it is not, of course, a society of librarians, and so the International Federation of Library Associations, formed in 1927, may prove to be the best point of contact between the national centres.

THE INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF DOCUMENTATION

[B. p. 350]

The history and achievement of the Institute are summarized in B. 250, 253, 254, from which much of the following is taken. It was founded in 1895 by the International Congress for Bibliography on the instigation of Paul Otlet and Henri La

Fontaine, as a centre for the world organization of bibliographical affairs. This included the compilation of a union catalogue of all printed matter, to be in two sequences, one of authors and the other of subjects; the formation of an information bureau; the drawing up and propagation of standard formats for book production, standard cataloguing rules and a standard system of classification, and the publication of articles on bibliography. The co-ordination was to affect all branches of the book world, libraries, publishers, printers, booksellers and the Press, to bring about an even fuller unity than existed in the late medieval book world. At one time it seems that the founders of the Institute thought that these activities could be completely centralized, and had an idea for forming a great bibliographical world centre at Geneva or Brussels which would include, among other things, a library containing a copy, or photographic reproduction of every book or manuscript in the world. It would also have a museum containing all objects relating to bibliography, a term which would be very widely interpreted.

There has, unfortunately, often been confusion between the following 3 bodies: 1. The International Institute of Documentation (formerly Bibliography); 2. The International Office of Bibliography; 3. The Mundaneum (Union des Associations Internationales).

The International Institute of Bibliography (Documentation) has been used popularly, though incorrectly, to cover the work of all these bodies. In fact, the three are distinct. There is a close connection between 1 and 2, what may be called a "twin" relationship; but 1 has nothing, and 2 very little, to do with 3. This, the Mundaneum, is a scheme for a world museum of products of the human mind. A small collection of material has been assembled at the Institute's headquarters in Brussels but the project has made little headway. It has nothing to do with our subject and no more will be said about it.

Because the name I.I.B. (I) has been popularly used to cover the work not only of that body but also of the International Office of Bibliography, we have so used it in our headings and general references here: but these two bodies are really distinct.

The International Office of Bibliography was founded slightly

earlier than, but soon became linked with, the International Institute of Bibliography. It was open for all governments to take part in it, but actually only the Belgian government did so. The Council of the I.I.D. has no power in the International Office. The original intention was that the "Institut International de Bibliographie" should be simply an international scientific association of people interested in bibliography whereas the "Office International de Bibliographie" should act as a compilation and information centre.

Both the Institute and the Office were, in their early years, housed in the Royal Library at Brussels, but neither was ever in any sense a part of that library. It was here that the Office began its great work of making the union catalogue, and it should be emphasized that this catalogue belongs to the Office and not to the I.I.D.

The union catalogue is indeed a tremendous achievement. It has been made by cutting up printed catalogues and lists of additions and pasting them on cards of international size on which the names of the libraries possessing the books are written. Entries are also made for articles in periodicals, and the whole is divided into two main sections, one arranged alphabetically by authors and the other by subjects according to the Decimal Classification. It was begun soon after 1895 as a catalogue of Belgian libraries, but was before long extended to include libraries in other countries.

The Office has kindly supplied the following statistics of entries in the catalogue as on December 31st, 1934 :—

Répertoire par auteurs : Classement Alphabétique :

IA	Ouvrages se trouvant dans les Bibliothèques de Belgique :	1,364,000
IB	Titres de périodiques et fiches de références ¹ se trouvant dans les Bibliothèques de Belgique	246,000
IIA	Répertoire international	5,200,156
IIB	„ „ transitoire ²	3,641,440
Total of author entries		10,451,596

¹ "Fiches de références" apparently means cards for anything other than books or periodicals.

² "Répertoire transitoire" cards not yet checked and sorted into the main sequence.

Répertoire par matières : Classement Décimal :

IA Ouvrages et articles de revues se trouvant en Belgique et à l'étranger

3,809,693

B Répertoire transitoire

292,749

C Répertoire de Documentation Iconographique

105,261

Total of subject entries ..

4,207,604

Répertoire de Reserve : doubles et pour exposition

1,107,247

Total of all entries

15,766,546

The catalogue was defined as "a collective catalog of the great libraries of the world, indicating where some copy of a specific work might be found." [B. 41 :—p. 113.]

It has already been noted (p. 236) that this catalogue must have been of great assistance in promoting lending between Belgian libraries. The Institute has also unquestionably served as a national centre for effecting loans between Belgian and foreign libraries : so, for example, in the year 1908-9 the State Library in Berlin reports "Belgische Bibliotheken deren Bestände durch die gütige Bemühung des Institut international de Bibliographie zu Brüssel auf Grund der Suchlisten verglichen wurden : 26, und zwar in : Brüssel, Kgl. B. 18 ; Lüttich, Univ. B. 3 ; Brüss. Akad. d. Wiss. 2 ; Mons, Stadt B. 2 ; Löwen, Univ. B. 1." (B. 74. 1908-9, p. 64). In the pre-War years the Office probably helped to effect many other loans between Belgian libraries and libraries in Germany and other countries. It has also promoted Belgian library service in other ways. For example, B. 162 is the outcome of a Summer School for librarians organized by the Office.

The International Institute of Bibliography (now Documentation) has as its object to "réunir, classer et distribuer des documents de tout genre dans tous les domaines de l'activité humaine." Its main work has been to develop the system of Decimal Classification first elaborated by Melvil Dewey and to stimulate its use. The Office and the Institute were installed in the great Palais Mondial, Parc du Cinquantenaire, Brussels, in 1920.

As far as the Office is concerned the years of chief activity

were from 1895-1914. Then it had a fairly large staff, at times as many as 30 paid and 20 voluntary assistants, whereas now at Brussels M. Otlet has only one paid and one voluntary assistant. It was during these years that the bulk of the great catalogue was compiled.

From 1895 up to 1924 the principle of the whole Institute was complete centralization. It was believed that the World Museum could be formed, that the world catalogue could be compiled, and the documentation could all be done at the centre. During this time the Institute had only individual members. It had a few agencies in other countries, as in Paris, Zürich and Lausanne, but they merely acted as correspondents or representatives and were not elements of a federative organization.

The War showed the tremendous power of printed propaganda, especially perhaps, in promoting international misunderstanding when directed to that end: it also stimulated interest in foreign languages and foreign and international affairs. But the Institute did not receive much practical impetus from it. The move to the Palais Mondial in 1920 and the foundation in 1921 of the Dutch Institute were important developments, especially the latter, but the Institute's general resources were greatly decreased after the War; and there was little activity in the period 1928-24.

In 1924 there was a reorganization which put the I.I.B. on a federative basis. The view that the work could be completely centralized was abandoned, and a policy of decentralization adopted. Independent organizations were founded and independent existing organizations were invited to join the federation. The organization was thus constructed from the periphery and not from the centre. The task of the centre was to find out the existence and nature of various centres of bibliographical activity and to attempt only to co-ordinate their work, not to do it for them. Even this task is, of course, tremendous, and it must be agreed that the I.I.D. has as yet made but slight progress on its path towards a world organization of bibliographical activities, except, perhaps, in matters of science and technology. But it would be wrong to criticize the I.I.D. for not having achieved finality or even for not being likely to do so in this matter. If it can do good work, that demands appreciation.

In 1931 the I.I.B. changed its name to International Institute of Documentation. This is of no particular importance in itself but it emphasizes the difference between the International Office of Bibliography and the I.I.D., a difference which now became an essential, not a formal thing. The Office does not seem to have attracted the support necessary for its objects, probably because these (mainly the World Union Catalogue) have been regarded as extravagant and impracticable. The I.I.D. is in a different case. It has, as yet, by no means all the support it needs, but it is making progress and it has achieved a good deal.

From 1895-1914 the Institute issued a monthly bulletin. No journal was issued from 1915 to 1930, but in 1931 the I.I.D. started *Documentatio Universalis* which was printed and appeared quarterly until 1934 when it gave way to *I.I.D. Communicationes*, also a quarterly, but in multigraphed type-script.

The Institute has held 12 international conferences, of which 8 have been since the War, the last being at Brussels in 1933. The next will be at Copenhagen in Sept., 1935. It has established a central office at Brussels, where it has a library of bibliographical tools, and a part of the general secretariat has been set up in Holland—Willem Witsenplein 6, The Hague. This Dutch section is extremely active. It started with a staff of 3 and now has 7 graduates and 3 clerical assistants.

The Institute has published matter to the extent of nearly 20,000 printed pages. It has made useful suggestions for standard formats in book production, and for an international code of cataloguing rules, but its chief contribution to bibliographical science is its expansion of the system of Decimal Classification first published by Melvil Dewey in 1876. For this the Institute formed an "International Committee on Decimal Classification" in 1923-4: the members are representatives of the national sections of the I.I.D. and some specialized international associations; but for special topics sub-committees are formed on to which experts who are not members of the Institute may be co-opted [B. 190 :—4th Conference, 1927. p. 6].

The Institute's first expansion of the classification, published in 1905, contained 36,000 sub-divisions; it now contains some

80,000. The idea of the Decimal Classification has become widely spread and extended to spheres of work outside libraries. It is used in the classification of correspondence and administrative files, the classification of patent specifications, etc. : in Holland 410 municipalities have classed their correspondence files according to the D.C. A large number of experts are continually engaged in developing the classification ; it is impossible to say how many, since the work is decentralized as indeed is that of the Institute generally. The financial administration and administration of publications is done in Germany ; the committees on terminology, catalography and photo-copyright are in France. London¹ has taken charge of the bibliography of science and technology, Holland has a part of the general secretariat, the "I.I.D. Communications" and the "International Committee on Decimal Classification." The collaborators are often experts in bibliographical subjects other than classification and are valuable sources of information when the Institute is searching for bibliographical data. They correspond extensively on all kinds of bibliographical subjects ; and in this way a network of co-operating workers in the general field of bibliography is being formed.

The Institute has published an expansion of the Decimal Classification in French ; another in German is now in course of publication, and an English edition is in preparation. Abridged editions have appeared or are in preparation in 7 other languages and unofficial ones have appeared in 2 other languages. There have been numerous unofficial abridgements—in Holland alone, 8 such editions of various parts of the classification have appeared.

The Universal Decimal Classification has been adopted chiefly by information bureaux, special libraries, and periodical bibliographies, and particularly by such of these as are scientific, technical and commercial in nature ; and it is in these circles, rather than in general libraries, that interest in the classification is chiefly shown. This is easily understandable, the wants of the scientist, technical worker and industrialist are of a special kind, as noted on pp. 31-32, and minute and standard classification is a matter of extreme importance to those who have to cater

¹ The work here is done by the "British Society for International Bibliography." [See p. 318.]

for these wants. But classification is not so important in the general libraries; for many of these an author index is far more important than a subject index: in addition most of them already have some other scheme, in continental libraries usually a home-made one, and in Great Britain the Dewey Decimal System. The task of changing from one system to another is so great that few libraries can undertake it. Furthermore, a new system has also come into the field during the century, that of the American Library of Congress.

The whole matter of the relation of the Institute with the League of Nations, and especially with the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation, is thoroughly discussed in B. 41, especially on pp. 60-115 and 145-156. The Institute seems to have contributed to the formation of the League's Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, and this produced the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation at Paris, so that the Brussels Institute may be said to have been largely instrumental in bringing the Paris Institute into existence [B. 41, p. 155].

In 1924 an agreement was made between the League and the Brussels Institute whereby the League undertook to assist the Institute in: 1. The making of a world union catalogue. 2. The development of a central library of bibliographical material. 3. The publication of subsequent editions of the *Index Bibliographicus* and of a bulletin "which would serve as the organ of the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation of the League of Nations for questions of bibliography." 4. Establishing an information bureau, both to supply information and to link up national centres of information. [B. 41, p. 111].

In spite of this agreement the League apparently gave no more material assistance than the 1,000 Swiss francs it had already given for the publication of the *Index Bibliographicus*, issued in 1925 as from the League's Committee on Intellectual Co-operation: a 2nd edition was published in 1931 by the Paris Institute. Furthermore, in 1926 the Paris Institute was formed and since that time this has been the medium through which the League has been active in questions of bibliography.

The I.I.D. now has national sections in Belgium, Denmark, France, Czecho-Slovakia, Germany, Great Britain, Holland,

Poland, Rumania and Switzerland, in addition to its headquarters in Brussels and the Hague. The national sections consist for the most part, of industrial and technical associations and special rather than general libraries, but a considerable number of general libraries do take part in the work ; notably the national libraries in Belgium, Germany and Switzerland. The British section is the "British Society for International Bibliography," which has its headquarters in the Science Museum, South Kensington, London, S.W.7. The library of this Museum is a special national library doing bibliographical work of great importance in the field of science and taking a prominent part in inter-library lending in Great Britain [B. 193-94].

The work of the Institute, apart from developing the Decimal Classification, lies chiefly in abstracting, copying and indexing and in supplying information, and so is not directly concerned with library co-operation although it is often complementary to it. Yet, like the Office, it has attempted some tasks of a "library" kind, the headquarters at the Hague, for example, is now compiling a union catalogue of scientific periodicals in 180 libraries in that city.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF INTELLECTUAL CO-OPERATION, PARIS

[B. pp. 350-51]

The International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, set up by the League of Nations in 1922, soon found the need of a "permanent office, adequately equipped with funds and a staff capable of undertaking far-reaching enquiries and complicated negotiations" [B. 261 :-p. 7]. In July 1924, the French Government, in response to a request of the Chairman of the Committee, offered permanent headquarters in Paris together with a substantial grant towards the cost of upkeep.

The League accepted this offer and in January, 1926, the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation was inaugurated at Paris in the Palais Royal, 2, rue de Montpensier. The French

Government had voted an annual grant of 2 million francs, and 17 other countries : Austria, Brazil, Colombia, Denmark, Egypt, Ecuador, Hungary, Italy, Luxembourg, Mexico, Monaco, Poland, Portugal, Rumania, Switzerland, Venezuela and Yugoslavia also make annual contributions : the Institute was thus, from its outset, self-supporting, and no expense to the League. France supplied, and still does supply, about three-fifths of the income, as well as the free premises, her only condition being that the headquarters shall remain in Paris.

The Secretariat of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation remains at Geneva ; the Paris Institute is the executive instrument of that Committee. A third section of the organization for intellectual co-operation is made up of the national committees set up in 41 countries.

"The International Committee . . . examines . . . schemes of intellectual co-operation to promote science, art, literature and education . . . The International Institute . . . by means of enquiries and consultations and meetings of Sub-Committees and Experts, prepares the ground for the labour of the International Committee . . . carries out its recommendations, maintains contact with administrations and associations, issues publications and participates in international congresses. The staff now consists of some 40 officials. Forty-four Governments, among which are those of several countries which do not belong to the League of Nations, have appointed each an official delegate to the Institute." [B. 261 :—pp. 10–11 (revised by the Institute)].

The object of the Institute is to assist intellectual workers of all kinds and in all countries, and especially to bring them into touch, or at least to make it possible for one in any country to find out what is being done in any other. "Intellectual" is interpreted broadly. The Institute works for international understanding and lasting peace not only or even chiefly by the encouragement of the study of any one people by another, but rather by co-ordinating, so far as it is possible and right to do so, the study of all things among all people. Its activities may be briefly summarized as follows :—

Personal contacts and exchanges of views between scholars, writers and intellectual workers of all kinds by means of "Open

Letters" and "Conversations." The study, from the intellectual and international standpoint of the chief means of spreading information, the Press, Wireless, the Cinema. The scientific study of international relations. Collaboration between the principal administrative departments of an intellectual nature, Ministries of Education, Departments of Fine Art, Museums, State Archives, Libraries and Universities, and the promotion of intellectual rights.

"*Open Letters*" and "*Conversations*."—Under the auspices of the League of Nations' Permanent Committee on Arts and Letters, a series of open letters and conversations between representative leaders of thought have been organized since 1931 on such matters as the following: "*Why War?*" (Albert Einstein and Sigmund Freud); "*For a League of Minds*"; "*L'Esprit, l'Ethique et la Guerre*"; "*East and West*" and "*The Northern and Latin Mind*." As part of this same programme, "Conversations" have been held at Frankfort-on-Main (1932), Madrid and Paris (1933) and Venice (1934), the subjects for debate being respectively, "Goethe," "The Future of Culture," "The European Mind," "Contemporary Art and Reality," and "Art and the State."

Modern means of dissemination.—In its "Intellectual Co-operation series," the Institute also publishes studies by eminent journalists, film producers and broadcasting experts on such problems as the educational and international role of the Press, the cinema and broadcasting.

Scientific Study of International Relations.—Every year, the Intellectual Co-operation Organization organizes a session of the Permanent Conference of International Studies; this Conference, which groups historians, sociologists, economists and jurists, examines, from the scientific point of view, certain problems of current interest directly concerning the League of Nations and the States Members. Questions at present under consideration are "The State and economic life," and "Collective security."

Education.—Under the auspices of the Intellectual Co-operation Organization, collaboration is maintained between national ministries of education. It has thus been possible to establish National Educational Information Centres in some forty

countries; furthermore, through the periodical meetings of the Directors of Higher Education, international collaboration has been established between Universities. The Institute has also studied certain special problems of education and has published such works as: "*The Reorganization of Public Education in China*," "*The Revision of School Text-books*," "*School Broadcasting*" and "*Travel and Exchange of School-pupils*."

Fine Arts.—Thanks to the work undertaken by the International Museums Office, collaboration between the different fine art departments has been established under the auspices of the Intellectual Co-operation Organization. Conferences are organized by the International Museums Office, as: The Preservation of Paintings, Rome, 1930; the Preservation of Artistic and Historical Monuments, Athens, 1931; Museum Design and Equipment and Museography in General, Madrid, 1934. Contact between fine-art museums is assured by the quarterly review "*Museion*" and its supplement "*Informations mensuelles*."

The programme of the Intellectual Co-operation Organization in the matter of fine arts provides also for the co-ordination of the work of institutes of archæology and history of art (quarterly review "*Archéologie et Histoire de l'Art*") and the study of various questions relating to folk-art.

Literature.—The Institute has published quarterly since 1932 the "*Index Translationum*," an international classified list of translations. It also arranges for the publication of French translations of masterpieces of Ibero-American literature (Ibero-American Collection).

Science.—Regular contact has been established between the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation and the International Council of Scientific Unions. Certain specific problems are examined with some of the Unions, for example the co-ordination of scientific terminology in collaboration with the International Union of Physics and the International Union of Biology. A monthly review "*Scientific Museums*" is circulated to science museums by the Institute.

Intellectual Rights.—The Institute has always considered it its duty to promote measures for the legal protection of thought,

in whatever form this may be expressed ; as : scientists' rights, moral rights, authors' and journalists' copyright, "droit de suite," jurisdictional sanctions in the matter of authors' rights and the world recognition of such rights.

Libraries.—Lastly, it has done much to stimulate the formation of national central library information bureaux, and it acts as a point of contact between these. It has also issued publications on library and bibliographical matters in addition to those mentioned above.

We are particularly concerned with its work with libraries, of which its chief published accounts are in B. 29-32, 255.

In 1925 the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation requested the library experts of its sub-committee of Sciences and Bibliography to examine the question of an international library co-ordination service. In 1927, a Committee of Experts, composed of four librarians from this Sub-Committee and other prominent librarians, examined replies to the enquiry conducted by the Institute among 2,000 or more libraries in execution of the above resolution of 1925. All the libraries which replied expressed a desire to see a Library Co-ordinating Service set up at the Institute.

The Committee of Experts therefore made recommendations of which the chief follow, which were approved by the International Committee in 1927 :

"1. That a special Library Service be constituted within the Section of Scientific Relations of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. The duties of this Service shall in the first instance be : (a) To provide a means of contact between the various national information services already existing ; (b) To facilitate the creation or development of central national services designed to guide scholars and investigators in regard to special collections . . . and if possible . . . to the libraries containing the books and documents needed by them.

"2. That each of these national services provide the central service at the Institute with all necessary information as to their equipment, *etc.*

"3. That this Service . . . should investigate the possibilities

of a more elastic and economical system for the lending of manuscripts and books from one country to another," *etc.*

A full text of these is printed, in French and English, in B. 29. The International Committee approved these recommendations provided that the detailed plan for carrying out 1 and 2 "shall be determined by a meeting of librarian members of the Sub-Committee [on Bibliography] and Directors of national and central libraries, in consultation with a representative of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation, a representative of the Secretariat of the League of Nations and a representative of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation."

This meeting was held in January, 1928, when the Experts, taking into consideration that national centres already existed or were being formed in "Austria, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, the Netherlands, Poland, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States of America," recommended :—

"1. That a centre of information be established in connection with the National or the Central Library of each country, *etc.*

"2. That such centres of information be provided, not only with the indispensable staff and funds, but also with the equipment necessary for their work . . . collections of . . . catalogues of the public and private libraries . . . bibliographies . . . classified information concerning the special resources, *etc.*

"3. That such centres should be co-ordinated as closely as possible . . . [they] should :

"(a) Undertake as far as possible to supply information required by other Central Offices ; (c) Keep copies of all requests . . . and add information subsequently received ; (d) Endeavour to centralize requests for information emanating from their own country."

The Experts further recommended "That the special Library Service to be created at the Section of Scientific Relations of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation should undertake as its first duties :

(a) to further by all means at its disposal the creation of centres

of information in countries where these do not exist at present ; (b) to develop closer relations between existing centres and to keep them informed as to the progress that each of these may achieve ; (c) to investigate all possibilities of improving the international loan and exchange services."

The above recommendations are contained in B. 29 [see also B. 8 :—Vol. 1. 169-71] which also includes descriptions of the national library information services in Germany, the U.S. of America, France, Great Britain, Hungary, Italy, Poland and Switzerland. This was the first publication devoted to international library centres. It did a good deal to stimulate interest in the work, the development of work already being done, and even the formation of new centres, as in Italy and France. It has been followed by B. 30, 31. In addition, the Institute has called meetings of its Library Experts at which various matters have been discussed. Reports of these meetings are printed in B. 255. Other bibliographical publications of importance by the Institute are B. 5, 32, and the "International Code of Abbreviations for Titles of Periodicals," 1920 (Also in L.J. 55. 1930. 957-8) and "Le rôle et la formation professionnelle du bibliothécaire," 1935, an exhaustive report on the professional training of librarians, including reports on the subject drawn up by qualified authorities in 35 countries. These publications are all largely due to international co-operation between librarians. A striking instance of the help given by the Institute to a co-operative enterprise in library work is seen in the American "List of the Serial Publications of Foreign Governments," 1932. The Introduction to this acknowledges the invaluable aid given by the Institute, which for two years provided headquarters for the work and immensely facilitated the making of necessary contacts in various countries and the collection of material.

In conclusion it may be mentioned that the Library Co-ordinating Service is drawing up a list of facsimiles of complete manuscripts in libraries : it is also making enquiries on legal deposit, the social rôle of libraries, and the design and construction of library buildings and equipment.

THE INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

[B. p. 351]

The history of the Federation is fully set out in Vol. I of B. 24 of which the sub-title is "Travaux préparatoires. Congrès de Prague, 1926, d'Atlantic City et Philadelphie, 1926, d'Edimbourg, 1927, Ière Session Rome 31 Mars 1928, 2e Session Rome-Florence-Venise, Juin, 1929." This contains a reprint of the first proposal for such a federation "Proposition, tendant au fonctionnement d'un comité directeur, international et permanent, élu par les diverses associations nationales de bibliothécaires," by Gabriel Henriot, then President of the French Library Association, originally printed in B. 16 :—p. 227–8, as well as the subsequent resolutions passed at the Edinburgh Conference of the British Library Association (originally printed in B. 203 :—pp. 95–103, 214–16) and others.

The first proposal was made at Prague in 1926 at an international conference of librarians. Later in the same year the question was further discussed at meetings of the American Library Association, and that Association was then requested to submit proposals for the scheme to the various national library associations so that by the conference of the British Library Association in Edinburgh in 1927 the matter would be sufficiently advanced for action to be taken. This was done, and on September 30th, 1927, at Edinburgh, authorized representatives of the Library Associations of 15 countries passed the following (and other) resolutions :—

1. Resolved that we hereby establish the International Library and Bibliographical Committee.

2. The Committee shall consist of members selected by the national library associations which ratify this action. There shall be from each country only one designated member with the right to vote, but with him may be associated adjoint delegates.

3. The duties of the Committee shall be to select the time and place for international library conferences and, with the co-operation of local committees, to prepare programmes for such conferences ; and to make investigations and recommendations

concerning international relations between libraries, organizations of librarians and bibliographers, and other agencies.

4. International library conferences shall be held at least once in five years, etc. [A full text of these resolutions is printed in B. 203 :—pp. 102–3, B. 24 :—Vol. I, pp. 13–14]. Dr. Collijn points out [B. 40 :—5. p. 139] both that the formation of the International Committee was “the realization of a long cherished desire within the library world” and that it was in no small measure due to the interest which had been stimulated internationally in library affairs by the League of Nations, particularly through the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation. That Institute sent a delegate to Edinburgh “expressly to explain the resolutions and recommendations of the Institute” with regard to national central libraries and associations of librarians [B. 24 :—Vol. I, p. 11] : these are printed in B. 203, pp. 95–97. The discussion which followed this, printed on pp. 97–101, is of particular interest since it throws light on the relations between the Paris Institute and the Institute of Bibliography at Brussels as well as on the nature of each. The general opinion seems to have been that the two Institutes each did useful work and that they should not compete. The delegate of the Paris Institute, speaking of relations between the two said that “the difficulty of collaboration arose from a fundamental difference of conception. At the Institute of Intellectual Co-operation it was considered that international co-operation could only work well if it was founded on a national basis”; the Paris Institute and indeed the authorities on libraries which it had consulted, strongly opposed the idea of a world union catalogue of books. The Paris Institute “only wanted to facilitate the creation of organization which could take up the burden for each country. The ideal of the Institute, in this sense, would be the ideal of education, namely, to make itself superfluous.” Opinion was expressed that the Brussels Institute might be able to do useful work in some matters concerned with library co-operation and that libraries should be ready to make use of its services.

For all this, it was clear that neither Institute would overlap with the functions of an international committee of library associations and so that committee with the title “International

Library and Bibliographical Committee" was formed, as noted above.

Dr. T. P. Sevensma, Director of the League of Nations Library, was elected Permanent Secretary. The headquarters of the Federation are established at the League's Library at Geneva, and the Federation has since benefited by the League's connections with different countries as well as by linguistic and other services provided by the League's Secretariat.

The first plenary session of the Committee was held in Rome on March 31st, 1928, and the second in Rome on June 14th, 1929, in Florence on June 25th and Venice on June 29th. The proceedings of all these meetings are given in B. 24 :—Vol. I. The subsequent activities of the Committee are given in the remaining volumes of which number 6 was issued in 1934. At the 3rd session in Stockholm on August 20th–21st, 1930, the Statutes drawn up at Venice were amended and approved. The chief are as follows [B. 24 :—Vol. 2, pp. 36–7 and N.T. 17. 1930. 36–7] :

"1. The name of this organization shall be the *International Federation of Library Associations*.

"2. The object of the Federation shall be to promote international library co-operation.

"3. Members of the Federation shall be those Library Associations which approve these statutes . . . Associations with allied interests may be admitted to membership by vote of the Committee.

"4. The affairs of the Federation shall be administered by the *International Library Committee*; this Committee shall consist of representatives selected by Associations which are members of the Federation, *etc.*

"5. The duties of the Committee shall be to select the time and place for international library conferences and with the co-operation of local committees to prepare programmes for such conferences and to make investigations and recommendations concerning international relations between libraries, organizations of librarians and bibliographers and other agencies.

"6. *International library conferences* shall be held at least once in five years, *etc.*

"7. The officers of the Federation and of the Committee shall

be a President, two Vice-Presidents and a Secretary. These officers shall constitute the *Executive Board* and [except the Secretary who is permanent] shall be elected by the Committee for a term to expire not later than twelve months after the close of each congress, *etc.*

"9. Annual dues for each member of the Association shall be fixed at a rate between 25 and 50 centimes (Swiss) for each member of that Association or on a basis of 5 or 10 per cent of the receipts from membership dues of the Associations, but shall not be more than 2,500 francs (Swiss) for any Association, *etc.*

A full record of the Federation's activities is given in its Publications, of which six volumes have been issued since 1930. These make the first "collection" and an inclusive title page and index to them was issued with volume 6 in 1934. The Committee has met each year in a different country and members have reported on the current library activities in their respective countries. These reports alone are of great value, for together they present a conspectus of library developments all over the world which has never before been presented, and which gives information of interest and utility. The meetings have also discussed and made proposals on many subjects; for example, the Federation has formed sub-committees on Hospital Libraries, Popular (Public) Libraries, International exchange of librarians, International exchange of university theses, Professional education, Library statistics, Statistics of printed matter [B. 24 :—Vol. 5, pp. 9–11]; and these committees have examined their subjects, made useful reports and suggestions on them, and stimulated interest in them in countries all over the world. The Federation has also taken steps to promote the general welfare of libraries as in the following resolution which was sent to the Governments and library associations of the chief countries of the world: "The Committee [i.e. the International Library Committee of the Federation] urgently requests Governments, in spite of the world crisis, to maintain undiminished, for the service of intellectual workers, the financial provision made for national education and instruction, and notably credits voted for libraries." [B. 24 :—Vol. 4, pp. 43–4]. It has also published a handbook of its constituent Library Associations [B. 264].

But perhaps the Federation's chief activity has been in the field of international co-operation and especially in international loans between libraries. This will have been realized from the references to the Federation's publications made in the preceding chapters. At the International Congress in Madrid in May, 1935, the subject of international loans was thoroughly discussed under the heads: 1. Comparison of international loans in different countries. 2. Necessary formalities and precautions. 3. Ways and means of facilitating loans. 4. Costs: postage, assurance, customs, etc. 5. Legal questions connected with lending. [See B. 24 Vol. 7 when published].

The Federation co-operates with the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation in Paris, assisting that with its "International Code of Abbreviations for Titles of Periodicals," 1930, and with B. 30 [see B. 255 :—1930. 527-8] of which it bore half the cost of publication.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

[B. p. 351]

Notes and statistics on international loans have been given in many of the preceding chapters; and, since a full report on the subject may be expected in the next volume issued by the International Federation of Library Associations, it is not necessary to say much about it here.

It has been noted in the early chapters (as on pp. 24-26) that successful international co-operation naturally depends on the efficiency of national systems, and that when these exist generally and are fully efficient, international co-operation will present no serious problem. It is quite obvious that the efficiency of national systems will prevent unnecessary international borrowing—at the present time it is highly probable that in some countries libraries borrow from abroad, at unnecessary delay, expense and trouble, books of which copies are available in their own countries. When a national system exists, this risk can be minimized if all libraries send to their own national central libraries for foreign books before applying abroad. It is more satisfactory still if enquiries between countries are all made in the first instance

only between their national central libraries. Thus it would promote international co-operation if this procedure, and the nature and functions of the national centres, were the same in all countries. In Great Britain there is comparatively little direct borrowing between libraries but applications are sent through regional bureaux and the National Central Library. In Italy, on the other hand, the borrowing is all direct, libraries only use the national centre when they wish to obtain books from abroad and only then if they do not know a library to which they might apply directly. Most foreign centres and libraries now apply not directly to British libraries but only to the National Central Library, so that practically all international loans by and to British libraries are made through the British national centre. When that has an enquiry from a British library for a foreign book it first makes an exhaustive search in British libraries. If it cannot trace the book it informs the enquiring library and does not apply abroad unless that requests it to do so. If it is requested to apply abroad it sends the enquiry to the central library information bureau, or, if that does not exist, to the national library, of the country of origin of the book. So, for a German book, it applies to the Auskunftsbureau at the State Library in Berlin. Normally it does not ask for the book to be sent but only for the address of a library which is willing to lend it to a British library: having received this from the foreign national centre, it notifies the enquiring library, which then applies directly to the foreign library offering the loan. Should the book be required urgently the National Central Library sends the address of the enquiring library to the foreign centre and asks that the book be sent directly to the enquiring library.

This method is still only experimental, but so far it seems to be successful. The main argument against it is that it is slow. But it seems that when a library will go to the trouble of borrowing from abroad it either needs the book in a great hurry, and says so, and the National Central Library has it sent directly; or else wishes to obtain it no matter how long it takes.

If this is generally so, the procedure mentioned would seem to be the best for all concerned. An enquiring library only has

to keep one address in mind, that of its own national centre. It does not have to waste time looking up addresses of foreign libraries and writing to them perhaps fruitlessly : when it receives notice of a foreign library from its national centre it knows that that will supply the book. Only one library will be put to any trouble about the loan : if direct enquiries are made perhaps 10 or 20 may have to correspond about it and the delay may be even greater. Furthermore, national centres can distribute the lending service ; can see that the task does not fall entirely on one or two libraries. It would, of course, be quicker if the national centre always sent the address of the enquiring library and had the book sent to it directly, but there are certain objections to this. In the first place the transaction is on a more businesslike footing if the actual request comes from the borrowing library ; in the second there is always the possibility that the enquiring library may have obtained the book from another source (libraries which try to borrow from abroad seem often to try at the same time to buy the books) and lastly it is sometimes more to the convenience of the borrowing library to know where the book is than to have it sent directly to it. This is particularly true since most requests for loans from abroad come from universities, where a professor or other reader often needs a book at a particular time and cannot make use of it at other times.

When the British National Central Library receives a request from the foreign centre it supplies the address of a British library willing to lend the book : it only sends the book directly (*a*) if a copy is in its own stock, or (*b*) if it is specially asked to do so by the borrowing library. A similar procedure is followed in Germany and Belgium.

The practice of sending books directly by post seems to be gaining ground. This has a decided advantage over the use of the diplomatic service in speed and trouble, but is rather costly, especially if the book has to be registered and insured, whereas there is usually no charge if the diplomatic service is used. Books on loan should, of course, be free of customs and any other duty charge. Difficulty seems sometimes to be met with on this matter [B. 267] but there seems to be no trouble on books sent from and to British libraries on international loan if the

parcels are plainly marked that the books are on international loan and will be returned in a specified time. On this matter see B. 24. Vol. 2, pp. 53-4 and 4, p. 96.

One of the greatest hindrances to international loans is the high cost of postage sometimes involved. Reference to this has already been made on p. 257, and in Great Britain libraries have found that some continental libraries send books by a "Carriage on Delivery" service which, while a convenient method to borrower and lender, seems to be unduly costly.

It is desirable that there should be a standard practice, as far as this is possible, in rules connected with international loans, as on the payment of postage, the return of receipts and duration of loan. This, of course, applies to all lending, but it is particularly confusing if a library borrowing books from two or three different countries has to conform to as many different rules. Sometimes these regulations are not acceptable to the borrowing library; for example, most German libraries lend freely to British libraries with none but the normal formalities; but one or two German libraries send a receipt form to the borrowing library and will not send the book until this form has been signed and returned. (Within Germany a request for a loan is usually accompanied by a signed receipt for the book). These lending libraries further do not acknowledge the return of the book. The borrowing library thus has to sign for something it has not received and never knows whether its obligation has been discharged.

Some Italian libraries also send an application form which is signed and which bears a statement to the effect "If you cannot send this book, please return this form, which is equivalent to a receipt, noting on the back that the book does not exist or may not be lent." When the book is returned to the lender this form is to be returned to the borrowing library with the signature of the lending library denoting that the book has been received.

Other continental libraries may follow a similar practice, but most international requests received at the British National Central Library are simply enquiries and not receipts. Receipt forms are sent with the books and are signed and returned only after the books have been received.

Variations in practice on these matters are not beneficial to international loan, and the whole procedure should, as far as possible, be standardized. The next publication of the Federation of Library Associations will probably contain some resolutions on the subject.

The promotion of international loans by the removal of petty restrictions was recommended at the Prague Conference in 1926 : "Resolution tendant à faciliter les opérations concernant les prêts entre bibliothèques . . . de divers pays. On propose au Congrès de voter une motion, invitant les bibliothèques . . . de tous les pays—au nom de la Science et de la paix que nous désirons tous promouvoir—à diminuer les formalités (et trop souvent les entraves chicanières) inhérentes, jusqu'à un certain point, aux opérations concernant les prêts entre bibliothèques . . . de divers pays, même de manuscrits et livres rares, et à se prêter plus gracieusement et plus simplement à ces prêts, si souvent indispensables." [B. 16. Vol. 1. pp. 76-7].

This is perhaps too sweeping, sounding more like a resolution on international loans made by a small country than an international gathering ; due precautions and restrictions on the loan of manuscripts and rare books are very necessary : but at the same time greater freedom in making these loans is still required, and was—for much progress has been made—still more required in 1926.

Some countries pay postage on books lent abroad and do not wish this to be refunded if they may also borrow books post free from the countries to which they lend. This matter, with reference to Sweden, is discussed on p. 222. It introduces the whole question of "reciprocity." In their regulations for international loans nearly all countries stress the fact that they are prepared to lend only to those countries which are willing to lend in return. A glance through B. 31 shows that out of 18 countries only 6 (Belgium, France, Great Britain, Latvia, Sweden and the United States of America) do not mention the condition of reciprocity. The condition is, of course, a sound one, but its meaning is sometimes perhaps not properly appreciated ; and particularly with relation to Great Britain. Continental librarians have been heard to say that they could not lend to Great Britain since the

British Museum and some other large British libraries would not lend to them—as, of course, these same British libraries would not lend to any other library in Great Britain; they do not lend at all. Therefore, it has been held, Great Britain could not fulfil a condition of reciprocity with other countries. But to hold this view is, of course, to measure reciprocity by standards which are wrong. Reciprocity cannot be measured by domestic rules so long as these do not prohibit any kind of service in return; it must be measured by that service which is offered. It is to be hoped that it is now generally realized that British libraries lend abroad as freely as those in most other countries, and are at least anxious to give as good an international service as any they may demand, and a better one if possible. It is good to realize too that a similar feeling is no less strongly held in all other countries, and that there can be too much literal insistence on reciprocity in our field of library work both national and international, where there is, as there ought to be in such a service, so great a wealth of goodwill.

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The following is no more than a list of sources, most of which, with others of less importance, were used in making the book. Reference is made to them from the text by the use there of the letter "B" followed by the serial number in this list of the item concerned, together, when necessary, with volume and page numbers. The list is chiefly of works in English, French or German, and is far from being complete even for these languages. Certainly much German material is omitted, some French, and a good deal of English, especially American publications.

Items containing bibliographies are marked with an asterisk. The place of publication of English books is London unless otherwise stated. References to numbers are to other items in this list.

ABBREVIATIONS

A.L.A.	American Library Association.
ASLIB.	Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux (London).
C.I.	La Coopération Intellectuelle (<i>See</i> 255).
I.I.C.I.	Institut International de Coopération Intellectuelle.
I.I.D.	Institut International de Documentation.
I.F.L.A.	International Federation of Library Associations.
L.A.	<i>Library Assistant.</i>
L.A.R.	<i>Library Association Record.</i>
L.J.	<i>Library Journal.</i> New York.
L.Q.	<i>Library Quarterly.</i> Chicago.
L.R.	<i>Library Review.</i>
L.W.	<i>Library World.</i>
M.Z.	<i>Minerva Zeitschrift.</i> Leipzig.
N.T.	<i>Nordisk Tidskrift för Bok- och Biblioteksväsen,</i> Uppsala ; Stockholm.
R.d.B.	<i>Revue des Bibliothèques.</i> Paris.
Z.f.B.	<i>Zentralblatt für Bibliothekswesen.</i> Leipzig.

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GENERAL WORKS

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Part I

CHAPTERS 1-4

- See 8, 10, 11, 14, 16, 17, 24, 29, 30, 31, 34, 35 (*Esp.* Vol. 2. Bibliotheksverwaltung. Chap. 5: Die Katalogisierung. Von R. Kaiser 236-318—Zentralkataloge, 307-317. Chap. 8: Auskunftserteilung. Von H. Uhlen Dahl. 438-63), 40, 41, 45, 46, 173, 187.
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Part II

CHAPTERS 5-11

SYSTEMS OF CO-OPERATION IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES

Accounts of different aspects of the library systems in various countries are given in many items in the section "General Works," above. Reference is made to the chief of these at the head of each section following, but, for Co-operation, attention is specially drawn to 8, 23, 24, 29, 30, 31. It should be noted too that, for the most part, annual reports of libraries are not given, but these naturally provide, and especially in the case of national and other central libraries, most valuable sources of information.

CHAPTER 5

GERMANY

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- 68 Abb (G.): "Vom deutschen und vom internationalen Leihverkehr." (40 :-Vol. 5. pp. 199-207).
- 69 Abb (G.): "Zum Entwurf einer neuen Leihverkehrsordnung." (Z.f.B. 47. 1930. 453-69).
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CHAPTER 6

AUSTRIA, HUNGARY, POLAND, CZECHO-SLOVAKIA, RUSSIA

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HUNGARY

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POLAND

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CZECHO-SLOVAKIA

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RUSSIA

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CHAPTER 7

DENMARK, SWEDEN, NORWAY, FINLAND

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DENMARK

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SWEDEN

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 146 Anderson (A.): "Inter-library loans in Sweden." (L.J. 29. Conf. No. 83. 1904).
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NORWAY

See 8, 11, 12, 20, 21, 23, 24, 30, 31, 36, 43, 44, 47, 134.

- 153 Norsk Bibliotekforening: "Håndbok over norske biblioteker." pp. 158. Kristiania. 1924.

FINLAND

See 8, 11, 12, 21, 23, 24, 30-32, 36, 44, 47, 134.

CHAPTER 8

BELGIUM, HOLLAND, SWITZERLAND

BELGIUM

See 8, 11, 12, 14-16, 19-21, 23, 24, 30-32, 36-38, 40, 42, 43, 47.

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